DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 360 865 FL 021 457

AUTHOR	Malave, Lilliam M., Ed.
TITLE	Annual Conference Journal NABE '90-'91. Proceedings of the National Association for Bilingual Education Conferences (Tucson, Arizona, 1990; Washington, D.C., 1991).
INSTITUTION	National Association for Bilingual Education, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	93
NOTE	197p.; For individual papers, see FL 021 458-470.
AVAILABLE FROM	National Association for Bilingual Education, 1220 L Street N.W., Suite 605, Washington, DC 20005-4018.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC08 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	American Indian Education; Arabic; *Bilingual Education; Bilingualism; Case Studies; Cooperative Learning; Cultural Pluralism; Cultural Traits; *Educational Environment; Educational Strategies; Elementary Education; Elementary Secondary Education; English (Second Language); Gifted; Higher Education; High Schools; *Limited English Speaking; Literacy Education; Native Language Instruction; Outcomes of Education; Parent Role; Primary Education; Reading Instruction; Refugees; School Community Relationship; Second Language Instruction; *Second Languages; Spanish; Teacher Certification; Uncommonly Taught Languages; Whole Language Approach
IDENTIFIERS	Southeast Asians; *Two Way Bilingual Education

ABSTRACT

Papers from the 1990 and 1991 conferences of the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE) are presented, including: "Beyond Socially Naive Bilingual Education: The Effects of Schooling and Ethnolinguistic Vitality of the Community on Additive and Subtractive Bilingualism" (Rodriguez Landry, Real Allard); "Descubriendo la lectura: An Early Intervention Spanish Language Literacy Project" (Kathy Escamilla, Ana Andrade, Amelia Basurto, Olivia Ruiz); "Emerging Literacy in a Two-Way Bilingual First Grade Classroom" (Natalie A. Kuhlman, Mary Bastian, Lilia Bartolome, Michele Barrios); "Effective Instruction: A Comparison of LEP Student Behaviors and Language Distribution in Regular and Effective Early Childhood Classrooms" (Lilliam Malave); "Creating Conditions for Positive Change: Case Studies in American Indian Education" (Teresa L. McCarty); "Examining Identification and Instruction Practices for Gifted and Talented Limited-English Proficient Students" (Andrea B. Bermudez, Steven J. Rakow); "Meeting the Needs of Gifted and Talented Limited English Proficient Student: The UHCL Prototype" (Bermudez, Rakow, Judith M. Marquez, Cheryl Sawyer, Cynthia Ryan); "Some Connections Between Bilingual Education and ESL Programs" (Luisa Duran); "Parents, Teachers and Students - Interactive Whole Language" (Maria G. Ramirez, Elva R. Mellor); "Whole Language: How Does It Support Second Language Learners?" (Yvonne S. Freeman, David E. Freeman); "Teaching English to Arabic-Speaking Students: Cultural and Linguistic Considerations" (Sheryl L. Santos, Mihmoud F. Suleiman); "Cooperative Learning, Multicultural Functioning, and Student Achievement" (Cecilia Salazar Parrenas, Florante Yap Parrenas); and "Reconstruction of Academic Credentials for Southeast Asian Refugee Teachers: A Comprehensive IHE Approach to Access and Excellence" (Juan C. Rodriguez). (MSE)

1990 TUCSON ARIZONA 1991 WASHINGTON D C

ED 360 865

ANNUAL CONFERENCE JOURNAL

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Published by:
National Association for Bilingual Education
1220 L Street, N.W., Suite 605
Washington, D.C. 20005

ANNUAL CONFERENCE JOURNAL

NABE '90 - '91

EDITOR
Lilliam M. Malavé
University at Buffalo
State University of New York

National Association for Bilingual Education
1220 L Street, N.W., Suite 605
Washington, D.C. 20005

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The editor wishes to express sincere thanks to her colleagues and assistants at the University at Buffalo and the National Association for Bilingual Education for their help during the preparation of this book. This endeavor would not have been possible without the generous support of these institutions. The regular use of the facilities at the University at Buffalo was vital to this publication. The editor is grateful for the dedication of both the graduate assistant, Ms. Patricia Pollifrone, and the computer specialist, Mr. Esteban R. López, without whose assistance and effort this book could not have been completed. Special recognition to Ms. Betsy Mercado and Mrs. Carmen Márquez for the training and research assistance provided and to Mr. James Lyons and Dr. Nancy Zelasko for facilitating the NABE Conference Journal publication. Thanks are also due to the editorial review board members for their enthusiastic participation and vigor during the rigorous review process. The generous cooperation of the contributing authors is recognized.

Lilliam M. Malavé, Buffalo
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BEYOND SOCIALLY NAIVE BILINGUAL EDUCATION: THE EFFECTS OF SCHOOLING AND ETHNOLINGUISTIC VITALITY ON ADDITIVE AND SUBTRACTIVE BILINGUALISM [1]

Rodríguez Landry
and
Réal Allard

Abstract

The position taken in this paper is that the basic debate concerning the effectiveness of bilingual education has been "socially naive." Different approaches to bilingual education have been contrasted with almost exclusive regard for educational or pedagogical issues. In so doing, the effects of the sociolinguistic environment experienced by the students have been neglected. The paper presents a macroscopic model of the determinants of additive and subtractive bilingualism. The model proposes that the ethnolinguistic vitality of a community determines the quantity and the quality of linguistic contacts with one's group and with other ethnolinguistic groups. These contacts, in turn, strongly influence linguistic proficiency, ethnolinguistic identity and the desire to integrate the L1 and L2 communities. These psychological variables then become strong determinants of language behavior. The role of schooling and of other types of linguistic contacts are specified within the model.

Results of a study involving approximately 1500 grade 12 anglophone and francophone students in seven Canadian provinces were analyzed for the effects of the degree of L1 schooling and those of the strength of the L1 network of linguistic contacts in the social milieu. The effects of the L1 network of linguistic contacts were stronger than those of L1 schooling for the following variables: desire to integrate the L1 and L2 communities, ethnolinguistic identity in L1 and L2, L1 and L2 self-rated oral proficiencies and L2 cognitive academic proficiency. Schooling in L1 had the strongest effect on L1 cognitive-academic proficiency. The results support the hypothesis that additive bilingualism is best promoted by immersion in L2 for high vitality groups and by L1 schooling for low vitality groups. It is concluded that the effects of bilingual education cannot be understood without taking account of the strong influences of the students' sociolinguistic environment.

Introduction

This paper is divided into three sections. In the first, a general introduction discusses some of the divisive issues concerning bilingual education that have been addressed recently in the United States. After pointing out the need for a theoretical framework that would account for the effectiveness of different types of bilingual education in different sociolinguistic contexts, a theoretical model of the determinants of additive and subtractive bilingualism is presented. This model shows that the conditions of additive bilingualism (Lambert, 1975) and in particular the effects of schooling differ depending on the degree of ethnolinguistic vitality of the community. Finally, in the last section of the paper, data collected across seven Canadian provinces is presented as empirical evidence for the model.

Review of the Literature

There has been much debate lately in the United States on the best ways to educate "limited English proficiency" (LEP) children (e.g. Baker & deKanter, 1983; Cummins, 1986; Hakuta, 1986; Paulston, 1988; Ruiz, 1988; Spener, 1988; Willig, 1985). Much of the debate is centered on whether bilingual education should promote a better transition of LEP students to an all English program or whether bilingual education should foster maintenance of the first language. Even when the objective is limited to effective transition to an all-English program, there is still debate as to whether the language of instruction should be English or the child's primary language (e.g. Ramirez, 1991).

It is not the object of this paper to review the many bilingual projects that have been implemented and evaluated in the United States. Reviewers themselves do not agree in their assessment of the quality of the research done, the general findings and their implications for bilingual education (e.g. Baker, 1987; Secada, 1987; Willig, 1985, 1987). We will also not try to untangle the difficult issues underlying bilingual education per se, i.e. the degree to which a society should promote cultural diversity and pluralism or adopt a more assimilationist position. Edwards (1989) is certainly right in pointing out that, for many people, the more or less hidden agenda of bilingual education is the promotion of social change. In the words of Edwards:

> ... bilingual education is seen as a reflection of a generalized support for diversity, helping to strengthen minority languages in the United States (particularly Spanish) and to weaken the position of English. Against this is the support for bilingual education which sees it as a force for an enduring ethnolinguistic diversity which means richness and strength for all without an erosion of English, and as a pillar of ethnic group identities seen to be at risk of assimilation. (p. 4)

We agree with Taylor (1991) who states that "whenever the issue of cultural identity is raised in the scientific literature, the normal rules of conceptual clarity and operational definition become inoperative" (p. 14). Cultural diversity and ethnic identity relate to fundamental values and to basic traits of the human condition. Researchers cannot easily avoid taking position on these issues and certainly much camouflage may be used in masking one's true position when one's stance is not consonant with the more widely accepted ideology. When the link between bilingual education and social change is made, issues of unequal rights among minority and majority groups are raised. Whenever this occurs, educational policies of school boards and governments cannot be dissociated from the more general issue of power relations. In turn, power relations bring about the problems of racism, ethnicism and linguicism: "ideologies, structures and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and non-material) between groups defined on the basis of race / ethnicity / language" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1990, p. 85).

As researchers, we are involved simultaneously with two research paradigms: the explanatory paradigm and the interventionist paradigm (Giles, Leets and Coupland, 1990). Although devoted to the objective analysis of the conditions that lead to language maintenance and loss, as educators and social agents we are also concerned with the conditions of change and the prescriptive interventions that can enhance the chances of survival of low vitality groups. Our position is one of promoting the maintenance of minority language without undermining integration into the larger society (see Berry, 1984). Bilingual education is one of the prescriptive interventions that may be used to enhance ethnolinguistic persistence and cultural diversity when, as mentioned above, this type of social change is consonant with society's ideology and underlying goals.

The position taken in this paper is that the basic debate concerning the effectiveness of bilingual education has been "socially naive". By this, we mean that different approaches to bilingual education have been contrasted almost exclusively in regard to educational or pedagogical variables without controlling for or taking into account the sociolinguistic environment that the students experience (see also Paulston, 1988). Language acquisition and bilingual development depend not only on the type of educational program taken but also on all other types of linguistic contacts. In other words, what is an effective bilingual education program in one social context may be completely ineffective in other contexts. What is needed is a theoretical framework that will permit effective adaptations of different educational programs to different sociolinguistic contexts.

Andersson and Boyer (1970) have defined bilingual education as "instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part of or all of the school curriculum" (cited in Edwards, 1989, p. 12). This broad definition permits many variations on a continuum from being schooled completely in a second language to completely in the child's mother tongue. We will argue in this paper that if immersion in a second language is the most effective bilingual program in certain social contexts, the best bilingual education program for children in very low vitality contexts may well be teaching exclusively in the mother tongue except for second language courses. We are assuming, however, that for this to be the case, *the goal of bilingual education has to be the same for all children i.e. the development of additive bilingualism* (as defined in the following section). On ethical grounds, it does not seem justified that, within the same society, some children be allowed bilingual programs that foster the acquisition of a second language while their first language is amply protected by society, whereas other children are being "mainstreamed" or "submersed" into a second language while their first language is left unprotected. In the latter case, both the child and society may be deprived of a rich cultural heritage. One may object to this position by arguing for "as little government intervention as possible in matters of ethnic identity" (Edwards, 1989, p. 22). In other words, no treatment is fair treatment for all.

Moreover, Edwards (1989) argues that "The general sentiment in America, however, indicates an overall willingness to assimilate, in particular to acquiesce in communicative language shift" and also that "matters of ethnicity are best left to those directly concerned" (p. 18). Edwards also takes the position that given the overpowering dominance of English, it is doubtful whether language maintenance bilingual programs could be effective. But does government non-intervention really do justice to all, especially in a country that prides itself of its democratic roots and traditions? Does equal treatment under unequal conditions provide for egalitarian outcomes?

In the following section we describe a macroscopic model of the determinants of additive and subtractive bilingualism which accounts for the role of schooling in promoting language maintenance in minority contexts and bilingual development in majority contexts. In the final part of this paper, empirical data supporting this model is presented.

Additive and Subtractive Bilingualism: A Macroscopic Model

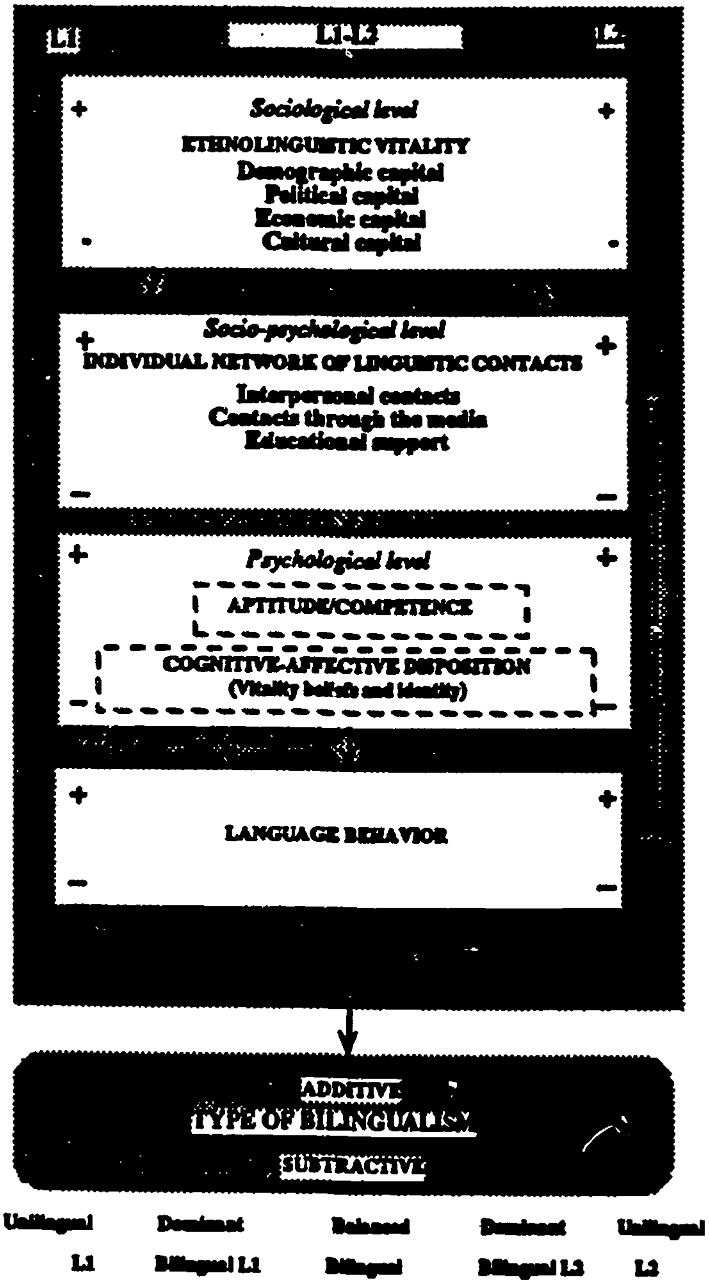
Additive and subtractive bilingualism are terms coined by Lambert (1975) that were proposed to account for the conditions that lead to either positive or negative consequences when learning a second language. Lambert was attempting to account for contradictory research results concerning the affective and cognitive consequences of bilingualism. Lambert had noticed that in certain contexts, very often those experienced by minority groups, the conditions of bilingualism were subtractive, i.e. second language acquisition led to subsequent losses in one's first language and culture. In other contexts, especially when the first language had high status in the community, the conditions of bilingualism were mostly additive, i.e. a second language could be learned and cultural elements related to this language acquired with no apparent loss in first language or culture. Anglophone children in Canada (Cummins & Swain, 1986; Genesee, 1983, 1987, 1991; Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Swain & Lapkin, 1982, 1991) and in the United States (Genesee, 1985) immersed in educational programs taught via French and Spanish, respectively, seem to develop an additive type of bilingualism. Minority group children in these two countries (Cummins, 1984, 1986; Ruiz, 1988; Landry, 1982; Landry, Allard & Théberge, 1991) and in others (Hamers & Blanc, 1983, 1989; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1983; Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988) often develop a subtractive type of bilingualism, especially when these children receive no schooling via their first language.

The distinction between these two types of bilingualism was important because it helped to focus attention not only on bilingualism as an individual psychological phenomenon but also on the social conditions of bilingualism (Reynolds, 1991a). Much of the emphasis, however, in the use of this terminology has been limited to the conditions of bilingualism that lead to either negative or positive cognitive consequences (e.g. Cummins, 1978, 1979, 1981; Hamers & Blanc, 1983). Although recent research tends to attribute positive cognitive consequences to bilingualism whereas research prior to 1960 attributed mainly negative consequences, critical analyses of these two research trends have concluded that bilingualism may not be related at all to major differences in cognitive functioning (Baker, 1988; Hakuta, 1986; McLaughlin, 1984; McNab, 1979; Reynolds, 1991b). In order to preserve the strong social relevance and the full heuristic value of the constructs proposed by Lambert, we submit an enlarged definition of additive and subtractive bilingualism.

We think that the enlarged definition which encompasses linguistic, cognitive, affective and behavioral criteria is more consonant with Lambert's initial intention (Landry, 1982, 1987; Landry & Allard, 1990). It also allows for varying degrees of additive and subtractive bilingualism which may differ on each of these criteria. Accordingly, complete additive bilingualism would encompass: a) a high level of proficiency in both communicative and cognitive-academic aspects of L1 and L2; b) maintenance of a strong ethnolinguistic identity and positive beliefs toward one's own language and culture while holding positive attitudes toward the second language and that group's culture; c) the generalized use of one's first language without diglossia, that is without one's language being used exclusively for less valued social roles or domains of activity. The last criteria provides the link to the social dimension of bilingualism. When the conditions of bilingualism do not foster the use of one's language, the individual ceases to be an active member of one's ethnolinguistic community. Furthermore, additive bilingualism under the other criteria is jeopardized because linguistic experiences in L1 become insufficient to foster strong L1 competencies, beliefs and identity. When many members of a linguistic community cease to use their language, not only does bilingualism become more subtractive for these individuals, but the whole community loses its ethnolinguistic vitality. As will be shown below, sustained use of one's language is necessary to maintain a network of linguistic contacts that will foster linguistic competencies, beliefs and identity.

The macroscopic model of the determinants of additive and subtractive bilingualism proposed (Landry, 1982; Landry & Allard, 1987, 1990, 1991 b) is based on the construct of ethnolinguistic vitality (EV). Giles, Bourhis & Taylor (1977) defined EV as "that which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and active collective entity in intergroup situations" (p. 308). Giles et al. identified three categories of sociostructural factors (demography, institutional support and status) that delineate the *objective* vitality of the ethnolinguistic group. In the present model (see Figure 1), EV variables constitute the sociological level which represents the division of power and resources between ethnolinguistic groups. The notion of "capital" is borrowed from Bourdieu (1980) to denote four interrelated but relatively distinct fields from which objective indices of vitality can be extracted: *demographic*, *political*, *economic* and *cultural* (see Prujiner, Deshaies, Hamers, Blanc, Clément & Landry, 1984). Important indices of demographic capital are the number of ethnolinguistic group members, their relative proportion in the total population, their degree of concentration within a territory, their relative birth rate, the degree of endogamy as well as the rates of immigration and emigration. The relative amount of control and the extent of representation, formal and informal, in society's various economic, political and cultural institutions constitute the degree of capital in each of these respective fields. Access to schools or educational programs in an ethnolinguistic group's language is a basic indicator of cultural capital, for example. A minimal level of "institutional completeness" (Breton, 1964) is required for a minority group to survive (see also deVries, 1984, Allardt, 1984). Ethnolinguistic groups which lack capital in all or most of these fields tend to

Figure 1: A macroscopic model of the determinants of additive and subtractive bilingualism


L1
L1-L2
L2
Sociological level
ETHNOLINGUISTIC VITALITY
Demographic capital
Political capital
Economic capital
Cultural capital
Socio-psychological level
INDIVIDUAL NETWORK OF LINGUISTIC CONTACTS
Interpersonal contacts
Contacts through the media
Educational support
Psychological level
APTITUDE/COMPETENCE
COGNITIVE-AFFECTIVE DISPOSITION
(Vitality beliefs and identity)
LANGUAGE BEHAVIOR
ADDITIVE
TYPE OF BILINGUALISM
SUBTRACTIVE
Unilingual L1
Dominant Bilingual L1
Balanced Bilingual
Dominant Bilingual L2
Unilingual L2

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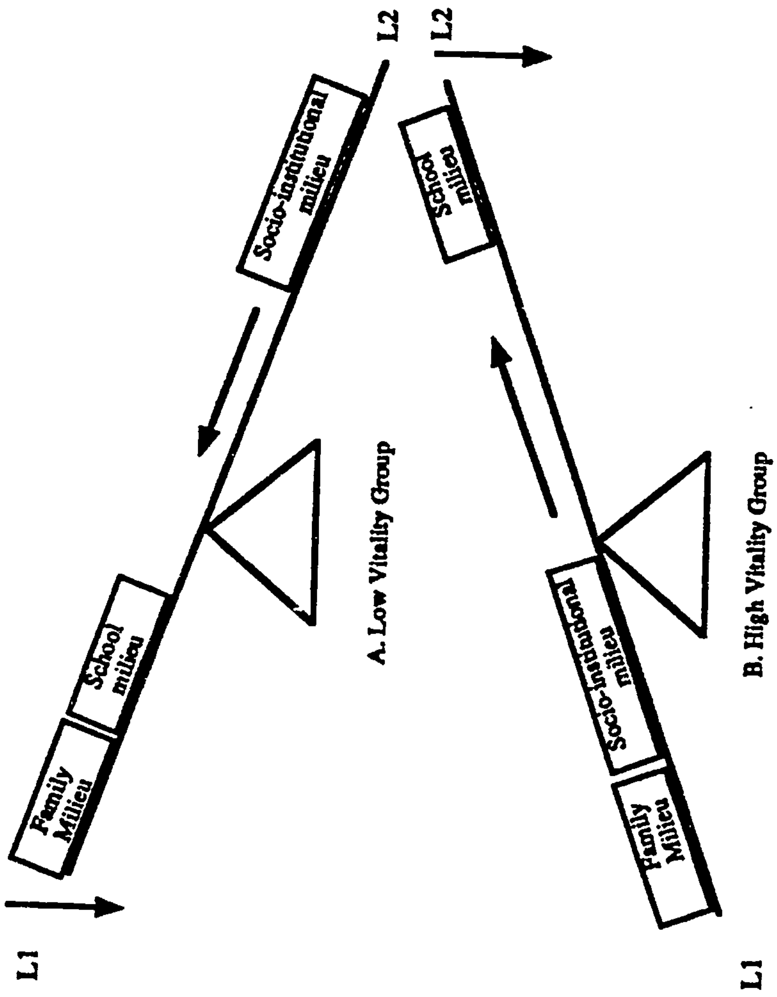
assimilate and eventually cease to exist as a distinct collective entity. For example, German immigrants once composed strong and active communities in the American Midwest but, through lack of "institutional completeness", they have lost much of their visibility as a collective entity (Grosjean, 1982; Hakuta, 1986). Lack of capital in one or more fields, however, can be compensated by power and resources in other fields (Prujiner, 1987; Prujiner et al., 1984).

In the model shown in figure 1, EV sociostructural factors at the sociological level largely determine the extent of ethnolinguistic contacts with both the ingroup and the outgroup at the socio-psychological level. All experiences which involve ethnolinguistic contacts are grouped under the rubric *individual network of linguistic contacts* (INLC). The INLC sub-networks of L1 and L2 contacts, for instance, are strongly related to the amount of EV of each group. A low demographic capital will limit ethnolinguistic contact with members of the ingroup outside the family milieu. Low cultural capital (for example, lack of schools, media, church and other cultural institutions) will foster contacts mainly in L2 and with the dominant group's culture. Ultimately, these contacts may be so pervasive as to invade the family milieu (for example, consider the impact of television and home videos on minority group children in North America). Low economic capital may mean that, when engaging in daily activities such as shopping, going to a bank, or working, group members will not be able to use their own language. Low political capital entails that most government services (health, welfare, social services) will not be provided in the group's language. The relative EV of a group, therefore, determines to a large extent *the quantity and the quality of the opportunities for ethnolinguistic contacts* with each group.

Ethnolinguistic contacts occur in a wide variety of forms and contexts. They allow the individual to be both a transmitter and a receptor of linguistic information and also to receive non-verbal messages that inform on the status and cultural values of groups. These contacts may have strong influences on the cognitive-affective disposition toward one's and the others' language (see below). Linguistic contacts may be oral or written, formal or informal, context-embedded or context-reduced, low or high in cognitive demand (see Cummins, 1981), and interactive or non-interactive. In a preliminary attempt to control for the great variety of dimensions involved in linguistic contacts, our research with high school students has focused on three types of contacts: interpersonal, through the media, and through the process of schooling (e.g. Landry & Allard, 1992).

One other way of analyzing the INLC of school children is to focus on three important "milieux de vie": the family milieu, the school milieu and the socio-institutional milieu (see Figure 2). According to the present model, the lower the EV of a group, the more the family milieu and the school milieu must compensate for an overload of L2 contacts in the socio-institutional milieu in order to provide the child with enough L1 contacts to maintain his or her language and to develop an additive type of bilingualism (Landry et al., 1991). Inversely, the higher the EV of a group, the less opportunities there are in the family and in the socio-institutional milieus to acquire a second language, and the more "immersion experiences" in L2 are needed in the school to develop a high level of additive bilingualism. But the school and the family, although crucial elements in the development of additive bilingualism, cannot fully compensate for lack of vitality in the socio-institutional milieu. Linguistic

Figure 2: The counterbalance model of bilingual development


L1
Family Milieu
School milieu
Socio-institutional milieu
L2
A. Low Vitality Group
L1
Family Milieu
Socio-institutional milieu
School milieu
L2
B. High Vitality Group

contacts within the community and within the global social network of the individual can have as much and in some cases greater impact on language development than the school. There is a strong need to adjust bilingual education models to the relative EV of the children's linguistic community.

The relative EV of a community determines the INLC. In turn, the INLC becomes the experiential basis for the development of competencies, beliefs and ethnolinguistic identity at the psychological level (see figure 1). Psychological variables are subsumed under two major categories: the aptitude / competence factor which refers to the *ability to learn and use* the language and the cognitive-affective disposition which refers to one's *willingness to learn and use* the language.

Aptitude is the ability to learn the language and is a result of one's inherent intellectual and linguistic aptitudes (e.g. Carol, 1973; Gardner, 1985). Competence refers to the ability to use the language and is acquired through linguistic contacts within the INLC. Based on Cummins' work (1979, 1981, 1984), the model distinguishes two different aspects of linguistic proficiency: interpersonal communicative skills and cognitive-academic linguistic proficiency. The first is highly dependent on experiencing interpersonal contacts or learning the language from a communicative approach (e.g. Krashen, 1981; Swain, 1985); it is fostered mainly by linguistic contacts that are interactive, relatively low in cognitive demand and context-embedded. It is also less dependent on intellectual aptitude than is cognitive-academic linguistic proficiency (Cummins, 1981, 1984; Genesee, 1976, 1978). The latter's development, more dependent on intellectual aptitude, is largely influenced by literacy activities and cognitively demanding, context-reduced linguistic contacts (see Cummins, 1981, 1984; Resnick, 1987). There is also a large amount of transfer across languages for cognitive-academic linguistic proficiency (Cummins, 1981, 1984). In low vitality contexts, when a child learns L2 from interpersonal contacts and contacts through the media, a large amount of schooling in L2 is not needed to develop a high level of additive bilingualism. Schooling in L1 will develop cognitive-academic proficiency in L1 and, with good L2 courses and the interpersonal communicative skills in L2 learned in the socio-institutional milieu, cognitive-academic skills in L1 will transfer to L2 thus helping to develop the latter skills in L2 (Landry & Allard, 1991 b; Landry et al., 1991 ; Landry & Magord, in press).

The cognitive-affective disposition component encompasses the many motivational constructs that have been proposed in relation to language acquisition (e.g. Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Clément, 1990) and also the many cognitive representations that may be analyzed in intergroup or intragroup contexts, e.g. Giles et al. (1990). This component also encompasses what has been called "subjective ethnolinguistic vitality" (Bourhis, Giles and Rosenthal, 1981) which is the cognitive representation that a group member has of his and other groups' EV. Allard & Landry (1986, 1987, 1991, 1992) have proposed that cognitive representations in general and subjective ethnolinguistic vitality in particular could be analysed in terms of *exo-centric beliefs* (beliefs that pertain to external or normative attributes of vitality) and *ego-centric beliefs* (beliefs concerning one's personal attributes and dispositions relative to the ingroup and the outgroup). The research cited above has shown that beliefs, especially ego-centric ones, were strongly related to frequency of language use. Like language competency, the cognitive-affective disposition component is highly related to the strength of the INLC (Landry & Allard, 1990).

Exo-centric beliefs are about things which are exterior to the individual, e.g. present group vitality, future group vitality, legitimacy of the group's vitality and perceptions of the language behavior of social models. Since these beliefs involve comparatively few feelings, they are said to be primarily cognitive in nature. Ego-centric beliefs refer to attributes and dispositions of the self and may express facts, goals, attitudes and feelings. They are said to be both cognitive and affective in nature, e.g. valorization of one's group language, feelings of belongingness, efficacy beliefs and goals and wishes.

Ethnolinguistic identity is also viewed in this model as part of the cognitive-affective disposition toward the integration of the ingroup and the outgroup. It is conceived to be the most deep-rooted aspect of this disposition and, like beliefs, it is hypothesized to be influenced by the strength and quality of one's contacts with ethnolinguistic groups, especially in the family and the school milieu (Landry & Allard, 1991 a). Identity is presumed to be an internal representation of oneself which has both cognitive and affective attributes, but it is considered to be primarily affective in nature. Hence, exo-centric and ego-centric beliefs and identity are considered to be part of a cognitive-affective continuum (Landry & Allard, 1991 a) which, depending on the strength and quality of the INLC, may lead to an additive or a subtractive type of bilingualism (see criterion b of definition above).

Language behavior, in the present model (see figure 1), is viewed as the end result of the INLC but the most proximal mediators of language behavior are the beliefs, ethnolinguistic identity and competencies which were acquired via accumulated ethnolinguistic contacts. Contextual cues in the situation of communication (e.g. Bourhis, 1979, 1985) may also directly affect the choice of language. As shown in figure 1, language behavior feeds back to the INLC. It is part of the INLC (each linguistic behavior occuring in a network of linguistic contacts) but it is also the result of past experiences in the INLC (these giving rise to beliefs and competencies).

Also, as shown in Figure 1, the end result of this global process can be different types and degrees of bilingualism. The INLC leads to various degrees of beliefs, ethnolinguistic identity, communicative and cognitive-academic proficiency as well as to varying degrees of use of L1 and L2. This is why the definition of additive and subtractive bilingualism given above encompasses linguistic, cognitive, affective and behavioral criteria.

The term "macroscopic" for the present model was borrowed from DeRosnay (1975). A macroscopic model is a conceptual tool needed for the analysis of a complex phenomenon, or when the parts being analyzed are in systemic relation to a more global whole. The present model is one of the few attempts to integrate the social and the psychological dimensions of bilingualism into a single framework (Blanc & Hamers, 1987). Depending on the purpose and the scope of a study, one can adjust the "zoom" of the macroscope and focus on one particular element of the model in greater detail or analyze the dynamics of the relationships among elements of the model. But the macroscope helps one to remember the roles and relationships of each component.

In the study described in the following section, the relative roles of the community and of the school were analyzed in relation to the development of the criterion variables defining additive and subtractive bilingualism. The following three hypotheses were tested:

1. Ethnolinguistic vitality (EV) of the community and, more directly, the individual network of linguistic contacts will be related to the desire to integrate the linguistic community, ethnolinguistic identity, oral communicative competence and cognitive-academic linguistic proficiency. An increase in EV will be related to higher scores in L1 and lower scores in L2 and conversely, a decrease in EV will be related to lower scores in L1 and higher scores in L2.

2. A low level of schooling in L1 for low vitality groups will be related to a subtractive type of bilingualism, i.e. a decrease in L1 scores and no significant gain in L2 competency scores when compared to same group children schooled mostly via L1. It is expected that a low level of L1 schooling for low vitality groups may result in a stronger desire to integrate the L2 community and a stronger L2 identity.

3. A low level of schooling in L1 for high vitality groups will be related to an additive type of bilingualism, i.e. an increase in L2 scores and no significant decrease in L1 scores.

Methodology

Population and Procedure

Approximately 1500 grade 12 students in 29 different schools in 7 Canadian provinces were tested.

Anglophone students (approximately 340) were all from cities, towns or villages where the anglophone community had very high ethnolinguistic vitality (i.e. the Moncton, New Brunswick and Edmonton, Alberta areas). Subjects were either in the regular English language program or in partial or total French immersion programs.

Francophone students (approximately 1160) came from cities, towns or villages where the percentage of francophones ranged from less than 1% to more than 99%. They were from the provinces of Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. Access to French language schooling ranged from less than half of the courses taken to all courses taken except English as a second language courses.

Using measures of language behavior and of strength of linguistic contacts (see instruments section), the francophone students were grouped in the following fashion. A mean score of the following three scales was calculated for each subject: proportion of francophones in interpersonal network, contacts with the French media and degree of use of French in daily activities. This mean score is seen as a measure of the strength of the L1 network of francophone students. Subjects having an average score of less than 4 (all scores combined were on a 9-point scale) are defined as having a low L1 network, subjects having scores between 4 and 6 are defined as having a medium L1 network and subjects having scores of 7 or more are described as having a high L1 network.

All francophone subjects were further divided according to the degree of French (L1) schooling they received in their 12 years in school. All subjects having had less than half of their schooling in French (i.e. less than or equal to 4 on a 7-point scale) are considered as having had a low degree of L1 schooling. Subjects having average scores greater than 4 but less than 6 are considered as having had a medium degree of L1 schooling, whereas all subjects who had scores of 6 or above had all of their schooling in French except for English as a second language. The latter constitute the high L1 schooling group.

Since all anglophone students had high and continuous contact with the English language in their network of linguistic experiences, they were grouped only according to their degree of schooling in their mother tongue (L1). Those who had all of their schooling in English except for standard courses in French as a second language constitute the high L1 schooling group. Anglophone students who had more than half of their 12 years of schooling in French constitute the low L1 schooling group and those who had more than half of their schooling in English but who had some participation in total or partial immersion courses constitute the medium L1 schooling group.

Questionnaires were administered in groups to classes of students in the 29 schools that participated in the study. In one part of the study (Landry & Allard, 1987), the administration of a large battery of tests and questionnaires necessitated five 50-minute class periods distributed over two days. In the latter part of the study, certain questionnaires and parts of questionnaires were dropped and testing was done over three 50-minute class periods also distributed over two days.

Instruments

The questionnaires and tests related to the variables analyzed in this report are described below.

1. Oral communicative competence in French. This variable was tested through a self-evaluation questionnaire in which the subjects rated their ability to communicate in a variety of situations ranging in levels of difficulty (e.g. asking a phone number, describing family members, discussing politics, discussing the capital punishment issue). The subjects rated their ability to communicate in standard French and in their vernacular language. Scores reported could range from 1 to 9, the latter referring to "native-like" ability. The self-evaluations of the ability to communicate in standard French are the ones reported in the present analyses.

2. Oral communicative competence in English. This questionnaire involved the same language tasks used to evaluate oral communicative competence in French but the subjects rated their ability to communicate in English.

3. French cognitive-academic linguistic proficiency. A cloze-test of approximately 330 words and requiring 65 answers was used. Testing time was 20 minutes. Both the "exact" and "acceptable word" scoring procedures were used, the latter being reported here. Scores could range from 0 to 65.

Scores were standardized (Mean = 50.00, S.D. = 10.00) using as a reference group the francophone students from the Rivière-du-Loup area in the province of Québec. Approximately 99% of the population in this area has French as their mother tongue in a province where more than 80% of the population is French. A score of 50.00 is therefore equal to the average score obtained by the high vitality French reference group.

4. English cognitive-academic linguistic proficiency. A cloze-test of approximately 330 words and requiring 66 answers was used. Testing time was 20 minutes. Using the "acceptable word" scoring procedure, scores could range from 0 to 66. Scores were standardized (Mean = 50.00, S.D. = 10.00) using as a reference group the students from the regular English program in the Moncton (New Brunswick) area. These students resided in towns and villages where more than 80% of the population has English as their mother tongue. A score of 50.00 is therefore equal to the average score obtained by the high vitality English reference group.

5. Beliefs in ethnolinguistic vitality. This questionnaire related eight different categories of beliefs to twelve different indices of ethnolinguistic vitality. A factor analytic study of the eight beliefs concerning French vitality and of the eight beliefs concerning English vitality yielded the following factor scores: (1) exo-centric beliefs toward French ethnolinguistic vitality, (2) ego-centric beliefs toward French ethnolinguistic vitality, (3) exo-centric beliefs toward English ethnolinguistic vitality, (4) ego-centric beliefs toward English ethnolinguistic vitality. Exo-centric beliefs refer to the perception by the individual of situations exterior to him/herself and ego-centric beliefs are more closely related to feelings of belonging, personal values, expectancy of fulfilling one's needs in the language and the personal goals of the individual. Only the ego-centric beliefs are used in the present analyses since these beliefs are seen as reflecting the individual's desire to integrate the linguistic community. Scores are reported on a 9-point scale where 1 refers to no desire to integrate the community and 9 a very strong desire.

6. Language behavior in French. Subjects rated the frequency of use of French (1 = never, 9 = always) in 15 different contact situations.

7. Language behavior in English. Subjects rated the frequency of use of English in the same contact situations as in the questionnaire on French language behavior.

8. Francophone identity. Subjects rated their francophone identity on a 1 to 9 scale from a variety of perspectives (culture, language, ancestors, ethnic origins, etc...). The mean score is reported. A score of 1 equals a non-francophone identity and a score of 9 equals a completely francophone identity.

9. Anglophone identity. Subjects rated their anglophone identity on the same scales as for francophone identity. Scores could range from 1 to 9, the latter indicating a completely anglophone identity.

10. Non-verbal intellectual aptitude. The abstract reasoning scale of the Differential Aptitude Tests (Bennett, Seashore and Wesman, 1974) was administered. Testing time was 25 minutes. The maximum score on this scale is 50. Scores were standardized (Mean = 50.00, S.D. = 10.00) using as a reference group the francophone students from the Rivière-du-Loup area in the province of Québec.

11. Parental occupation. Data on the father's and mother's occupation were collected. Occupation was categorized on a 1 to 6 scale using the indices developed by Blishen and McRoberts (1976). Scores were standardized (Mean = 50.00, S.D. = 10.00) using as a reference group the francophone students from the Rivière-du-Loup area in the province of Québec.

12. Parental education. Subjects reported their parents' level of education on a 7-point scale where a score of 1 refers to schooling at the elementary level and a score of 7 to having completed graduate studies. Scores were standardized (Mean = 50.00, S.D. = 10.00) using as a reference group the francophone students from the Rivière-du-Loup area in the province of Québec.

13. Demographic vitality. Using the census data of 1986, the percentage of persons reporting French as mother tongue (first language spoken and still understood) is used as an index of demographic vitality. Subjects' scores are the percentages reported by Statistics Canada for their city, town or village. This procedure offers more variability and accuracy than provincial or regional rates.

14. Individual network of linguistic contacts (INLC). As discussed in the theory section of this paper, the INLC consists of three types of contact. Interpersonal contacts were measured by a questionnaire which analyzed different structural dimensions of interpersonal contacts with francophones and anglophones. For the present analyses, only contacts with francophones and the dimension concerning the proportion of francophones in the interpersonal network are considered. Responses were given on a 9-point scale (1 = none were francophones, 5 = half were francophones, 9 = all were francophones). Contacts with the French and English media were measured by a separate questionnaire in which subjects rated their overall access to twelve different media sources since early childhood. Only contacts with the French media are considered in the present analyses. Responses were given on a 9-point scale (1 = no contacts in French, 5 = contacts were half the time in French, 9 = contacts were always in French). Educational support was measured by seven questions, each one being answered for each school year from kindergarten to grade 12. Subjects responded to questions on a 1 to 7 scale regarding degree of instruction in French and English and on a 1 to 5

scale for the questions referring to dimensions of the linguistic ambiance of the school. Only the scale referring to the degree of instruction given in French and in English is used in the present analyses. A score of 1 indicates that instruction was given totally in English and a score of 7 that it was given totally in French.

Design and analyses

The design for the francophone students called for 3 X 3 analyses of covariance. The two independent variables were the strength of the L1 network (low, medium, high) and the degree of L1 schooling (low, medium, high). Covariates were parental education, parental occupation and non-verbal intellectual aptitude. One drawback of this design was that of an unequal number of subjects in each cell (Ns ranged from a low of 4 to a high of 323).

The results of the anglophone subjects were analyzed by a oneway analysis of covariance, the independent variable being degree of L1 schooling (low, medium, high). Covariates were the same as for the francophone students. Number of subjects per cell range from 71 to 123.

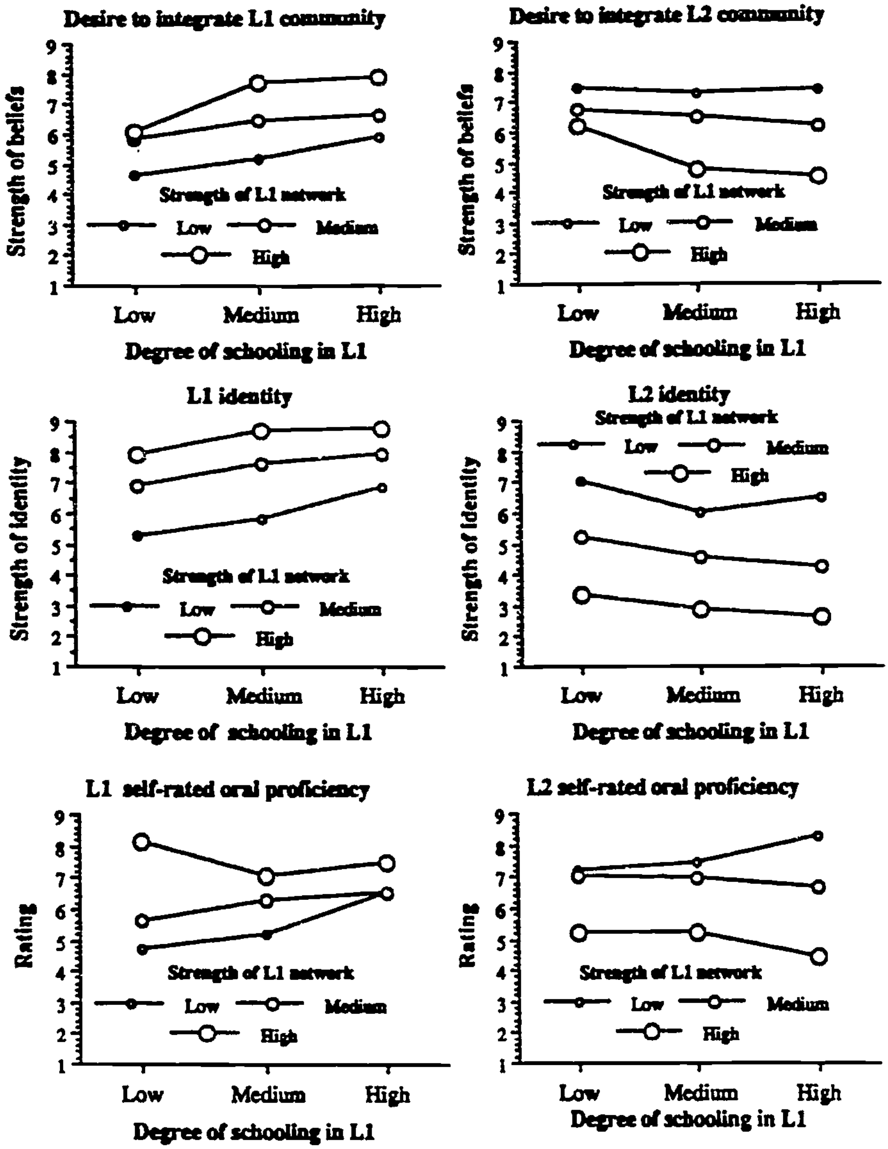
Due to space limitations, means and standard deviations for the eight dependent variables and three covariates of the nine francophone sub-groups and the three anglophone sub-groups are not presented but are available upon request from the authors. For the same reasons, statistical details of the F tests of the analyses of covariance are not reported. Only P values will be indicated. The results are presented in graphic form such that trends in the data are more readily observable. All results show means adjusted for the effects of the covariates.

Results

Figure 3 shows the scores of the francophone students in L1 and L2 for desire to integrate the linguistic community, ethnolinguistic identity and self-rated oral proficiency. All of these scores are reported on a 1 to 9 scale (see instruments). For the desire to integrate the L1 community, the analysis of variance found strong effects for the L1 network ($p = .000$) and for L1 schooling ($p = .000$).

A high level of schooling in L1 and a strong L1 network are both independently related to a higher desire to integrate one's community. The L1 network by degree of schooling interaction was not significant ($p = .082$) but there was a tendency for the high L1 network group that received low L1 schooling to have less desire to integrate the L1 community than expected. This could be an artifact of the small sample size in this group ($N = 4$). The covariates account for a small but significant part of the explained variance ($p = .030$).

Figure 3: The effects of degree of schooling in L1 and of the strength of the L1 network on the desire to integrate the community, ethnolinguistic identity and self-rated oral proficiency of the francophone groups in L1 and L2.



The desire to integrate the L2 community was strongly related to the strength of the L1 network (p = .000). The greater the strength of the L1 network the weaker the desire to integrate the L2 community. The effect of L1 schooling is also statistically significant (p = .007), but the effect is less strong than that of the L1 network, and as can be seen in Figure 3, the effect is only apparent for the higher vitality groups. The low vitality or low L1 network groups do not differ considerably in their desire to integrate L2 community irrespective of their degree of L1 schooling. For the latter groups, the desire to integrate the L2 community is stronger than the desire to integrate L1 community even for the students that were schooled totally in French (L1) from grade 1 to grade 12 (except for English as a second language). Therefore, for the low vitality francophone groups a high level of L1 schooling increases the desire to integrate the francophone community but it does not seem to decrease the desire to integrate the dominant anglophone community. The effect of the covariates is small but statistically significant (p = .015).

Both the strength of the L1 network (p = .000) and the degree of L1 schooling (p = .000) had strong effects on the strength of L1 identity of the francophone students. There is also a non-significant trend (p = .120) for the effect of L1 schooling to be stronger for the low L1 network groups than for the students that have stronger L1 networks. The L1 network also has a very strong negative effect on L2 identity (p = .000) but the effect of L1 schooling is not statistically significant (p = .195). The effects of the covariates is non-significant for both L1 and L2 identity scores. Again a high level of L1 schooling for the low vitality francophone students increased their francophone identity but did not decrease significantly their identification with the anglophone group. These students' identification with the anglophone group is as high as that with the francophone group. It is only in the medium and high L1 network groups that L1 identity is significantly greater than L2 identity.

The bottom of Figure 3 shows the L1 and L2 self-rated oral proficiency scores of the francophone students. Analyses of covariance show a strong positive effect of both L1 network (p = .000) and L1 schooling (p = .000) on L1 oral proficiency. The effect of the covariates is as strong as that of schooling (p = .000). A significant interaction (p = .024) indicates that the effect is stronger for the low vitality groups. For the high vitality groups L1 oral proficiency remains high irrespective of the degree of L1 schooling. The seemingly higher L1 proficiency scores for the high vitality francophone students that have low L1 schooling may be an artifact of low sample size (N = 4). The analysis of covariance shows that for L2 self-rated oral proficiency, only the L1 network effect is statistically significant (p = .000). The L1 network is negatively related to self-rated L2 oral proficiency. A high level of L1 schooling did not decrease the degree of self-rated oral proficiency in L2 (p = .939). For the low vitality francophone groups, there is even a trend in the opposite direction, where students who were schooled predominantly in French rated their English oral proficiency higher than the students who received minimal schooling in French. Although the scores reported are adjusted for the effects of the covariates, this trend may be due to uncontrolled effects of the students socio-economic status. On these scores, a relatively large part of the variance is explained by the covariates (p = .000). All low L1 network francophone students rated their English oral skills to be considerably stronger than their French oral skills. The present results therefore reinforce the view that the strength of the L1 network increases L1 skills and decreases L2 skills, but that the degree of L1 schooling reinforces L1 oral skills without decreasing L2 skills, especially in low vitality contexts. In higher vitality contexts, less schooling in L1 (or inversely more schooling in L2) should be related to increased L2 proficiency. This effect is slightly apparent in Figure 3 but the interaction does not reach statistical significance (p = .182).

Figure 4: The effects of degree of schooling in L1 and of the strength of the L1 network on the cognitive-academic proficiency of the francophone groups in L1 and L2.

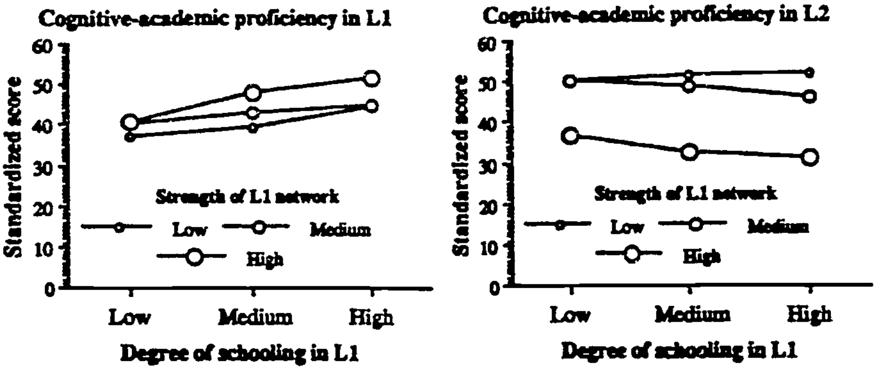
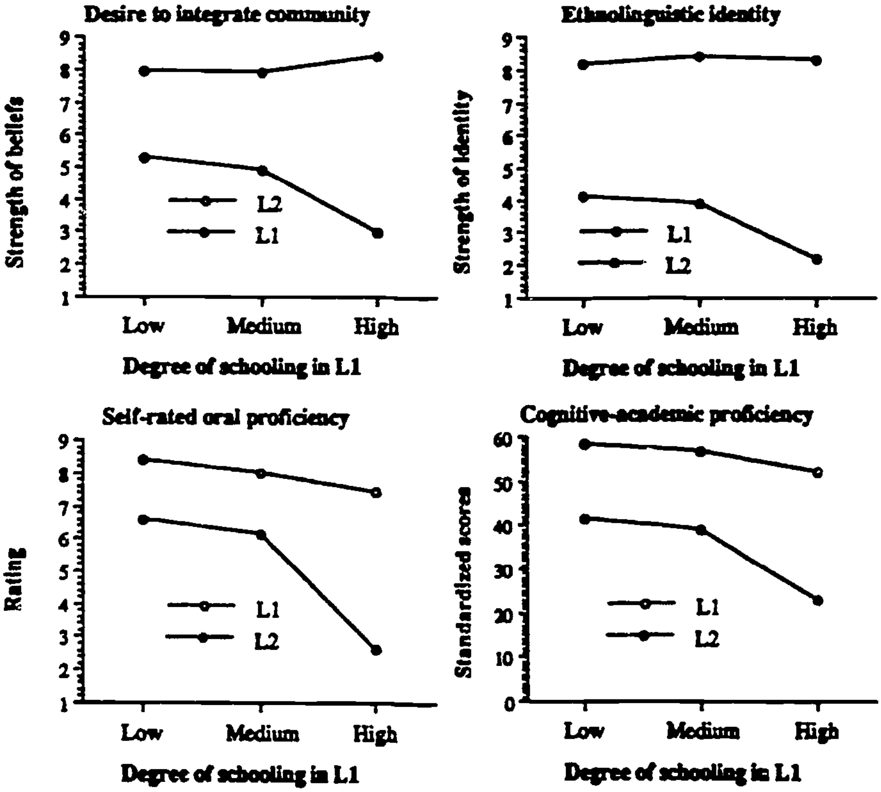


Figure 4 shows the scores of the francophone students on both L1 and L2 cognitive-academic proficiencies which were measured by the cloze technique. The largest effect is that of the covariates for both L1 and L2 proficiency (p = .000 in both cases). A large part of the explained variance is therefore due to SES and non-verbal intellectual aptitude. For L1 proficiency, both the L1 network effect (p = .002) and the L1 schooling effect (p = .000) are highly significant, the latter being stronger than the former. Both effects are positively related to L1 proficiency. On L2 cognitive-academic proficiency, aside from the covariates effect, only the L1 network effect is statistically significant (p = .000). The latter is negatively related to L2 proficiency. Degree of L1 schooling is positively related to L1 proficiency for all vitality groups. For low vitality or low L1 network groups, complete schooling in French (except for English as a second language) increases cognitive-academic proficiency in French by about one standard deviation, but the group is still approximately .5 standard deviation below the unilingual norm from Québec (see Instruments). In L2 (English), however, all three groups which have a low L1 network (and hence a strong L2 network) are within the anglophone norm based upon the anglophone students of Moncton, New Brunswick (see Instruments). Being schooled completely in French did not decrease their cognitive-academic proficiency in English. In fact, the effect of the ethnolinguistic vitality of the community, which in this case favors a high L2 network, is so strong that even when the students were schooled completely in French, their performance in English was closer to the anglophone norm than their performance in French was to the francophone norm.

Figure 5 shows the effects of the degree of schooling in L1 for the anglophone students. As can be observed, being schooled less in English and more in French for this high vitality group increases the desire to integrate the L2 (francophone)

Figure 5: The effects of degree of schooling in L1 on the desire to integrate the community, ethnolinguistic identity, self-related oral proficiency, and cognitive-academic proficiency of the anglophone groups in L1 and L2.



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community (p = .000) and decreases slightly the desire to integrate the L1 (anglophone) community. The effect of L1 schooling on the latter is highly significant (p = .000) but the absolute decrease in the desire to integrate the L1 community is minimal. The latter remains much stronger than the desire to integrate the L2 community even when the students had more than half of their schooling in L2. The effects of the covariates were non-significant.

The effects of the degree of L1 schooling on L1 and L2 identity of the anglophone students were very similar to those on the desire to integrate the L1 and L2 communities (see Figure 5), with the exception that the effect of L1 schooling on L1 identity is non-significant (p = .575). The effect of this variable on L2 identity, however, is highly significant (p = .000). For the anglophone students, being schooled in French increases their francophone identity, but the effect is additive since there is no decrease in the strength of their anglophone identity.

Degree of schooling in French was very highly related to the acquisition of both French oral skills (p = .000) and French cognitive-academic proficiency (p = .000). The latter skills, however, are still considerably below the francophone norm used in this study (see instruments). French immersion for this high vitality anglophone group did not decrease their proficiency in English. The between group main effect was highly significant (p = .000 for both self-rated L1 oral proficiency and L1 cognitive-academic proficiency) but in favor of the immersion groups. This effect is probably best explained by the fact that French immersion students in Canada tend to be a highly select group (Genesee, 1987). The means shown in Figure 5 were adjusted for the effects of the covariates (parental education, parental occupation, and non-verbal intellectual aptitude). However, uncontrolled factors may still be operative. The covariates' effects were non-significant for L1 self-rated oral proficiency (p = .186), significant for L2 self-rated oral proficiency (p = .026) and highly significant for both L1 and L2 cognitive-academic proficiency (p = .000 in both cases).

Discussion and Conclusion

The three hypotheses derived from the theoretical model were strongly supported by the results of the study. As predicted by hypothesis 1, the strength of the L1 network of the francophone students was significantly positively related to all L1 scores (French) and significantly negatively related to all L2 scores (English). The effect of the L1 network (which is related to the vitality of the linguistic community) was stronger than the effect of the degree of L1 schooling on the following variables: desire to integrate L1 and L2 communities, L1 and L2 identities, L1 and L2 self-rated oral proficiencies and L2 cognitive-academic proficiency. The effect of L1 schooling was stronger than that of the L1 network only for L1 cognitive-academic proficiency, which is consonant with the hypothesis that this aspect of linguistic competence is more highly related to literacy activities and context-reduced, cognitively demanding linguistic contacts (see theoretical model; Cummins, 1979, 1981, 1984; Resnick, 1987).

The second hypothesis was that a low level of L1 schooling for low vitality (or low L1 network) francophone students would be related to a subtractive type of bilingualism. Conversely, it was expected that a high level of L1 schooling for these students would foster an additive type of bilingualism. As predicted, a low level of L1 schooling was related to a lower desire to integrate the francophone community, a lower francophone identity, a lower self-rated oral proficiency in French and lower scores on a French cognitive-academic proficiency test. Also as predicted, competency scores in English were not significantly higher among the francophone students schooled predominantly in English than among the francophone students schooled predominantly in French. The results support the counterbalance model shown in Figure 2; for low vitality groups the best results in terms of an additive type of bilingualism are obtained by maximum teaching in L1 (see also Landry & Allard, 1991 b; Landry et al. 1991 ; Landry & Magord, in press).

Although it was expected that a high level of schooling in L1 may have reduced the desire to integrate the L2 community and the strength of L2 identity, the results were not clearly supportive of this trend. The negative effect of L1 schooling on the desire to integrate the L2 community was statistically significant but only apparent for the higher vitality groups. For the low vitality francophone groups, there was no apparent reduction in the desire to integrate the L2 community due to the degree of L1 schooling (see Figure 3). For each of these groups, the latter remained considerably higher than the desire to integrate the L1 community. The desire to integrate both communities, however, was stronger among the students who had the most schooling in French. The effect of L1 schooling on L2 identity was not statistically significant. In low vitality contexts, therefore, a high level of L1 schooling seems to increase the desire to remain an active member of one's community (an additive effect), but without decreasing the need or the desire to integrate the dominant community. Although not an easy task, the chances of developing an additive type of bilingualism are clearly greater in low vitality contexts when schooling is predominantly in L1.

The third hypothesis was strongly supported. As predicted, an increase of schooling in L2 (or inversely a decrease in L1 schooling) for the high vitality anglophone groups was significantly and positively related to an increase in all L2 scores, especially the competency scores. Also as predicted, no decrease was observed on L1 scores in relation to the degree of schooling in L2, except for the desire to integrate the L1 community. Desire to integrate the L1 community was still very high for anglophone students schooled mostly in L2 but was slightly and significantly lower than that of the students schooled mostly in L1. What these scores may mean is that students who received a considerable portion of their schooling via a second language (the language of the weaker community in terms of EV) may not want to integrate exclusively their own community. As the results in Figure 5 show, they also want to be part of the minority community, at least to a moderate extent. These results also support the counterbalance model depicted in Figure 2; for high vitality groups very strong and continuous linguistic contacts with L2 within the school milieu favor an additive type of bilingualism.

As already mentioned, the fact that French immersion anglophone students not only did not decrease their competency in English but actually had higher scores in English than non-immersion students may be due to their belonging to a highly select group. Analysis of covariance with SES variables and intellectual aptitude as covariates may not adequately account for certain intangible effects (Tabachnick & Fiddell, 1989) and this statistical technique is not as effective a control procedure as is random sampling. Nonetheless, there may be another plausible explanation. It has been hypothesized (e.g. Swain & Lapkin, 1991) that the French immersion experience, in the long run, may actually have positive effects on certain English proficiency skills. At this point, however, we can only speculate. Indeed, both an L1 enhancement effect and some uncontrolled home environment effects may be at play, simultaneously.

What are the implications of the present study for the bilingual education issues prevalent in the United States and discussed in the introduction to this paper? First, the results strongly support the view that "socially naive" accounts of bilingual education are clearly not taking sufficiently into consideration the very strong influence that linguistic network variables (over and above that of schooling) have on a large number of L1 and L2 outcomes. On all variables except that of cognitive-academic proficiency in L1, the linguistic network variables had stronger effects than schooling. Bilingual education programs should therefore be adapted to the relative ethnolinguistic vitalities of the language communities they are designed to serve.

Secondly, the results are in agreement with the view that additive bilingualism for minority group children is best promoted by minority language maintenance programs. It is highly unlikely that teaching predominantly in society's dominant language can produce additive effects on bilingual development for either low vitality or high vitality groups (Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988). Thirdly, the results also support Cummins' (1979, 1981, 1984) transfer or interdependency hypothesis. Low vitality group children schooled predominantly in L1 had L2 competency scores equal to those schooled predominantly in L2. For these low vitality group children, the L2 norm seems even more accessible than the L1 norm of a high vitality L1 reference group. This again shows the strong effect of the social milieu that cannot be completely compensated by the school milieu. The fact that the L2 norm could be reached by the minority group children seems contrary to the results found in the United States (e.g. Ruiz, 1988; Cummins, 1984), but it should be noted that the students tested in this study were equal to or higher in SES status than those of the normative group. This is not the case in the United States and, also, none of the students tested in this study were "submersed" into L2 programs to the same extent as many immigrant children in the United States. We are not saying that this type of submersion does not exist in Canada, but only that submersed children were not tested in the present study. Most of the francophone students tested had at least close to half of their schooling in French and all low vitality francophone groups had a strong network of contacts with English in the social milieu.

Finally, the results of this study support the view that L1 schooling for low vitality groups seems to be conducive to *integration*, whereas the opposite is conducive to *assimilation* or *deculturation*. According to Berry (1984) integration implies the "maintenance of the cultural integrity of the group, as well as the movement by the group to become an integral part of a larger societal framework" (p.12). At least in the present case, a high degree of L1 schooling for the minority group seems to foster this type of integration. Assimilation is "relinquishing one's cultural identity and moving into the larger society" (p. 12) and deculturation is defined by feelings of alienation and marginality, a situation often "accompanied by a good deal of collective and individual confusion and "relinquishing one's cultural identity and moving into the larger society" (p. 12) and deculturation is defined by feelings of alienation and marginality, a situation often "accompanied by a good deal of collective and individual confusion and anxiety" (p. 12). One or the other of the latter consequences seems to be probable when L1 schooling is not provided to low vitality groups. Finally, a high level of schooling in L2 for the dominant or high vitality group seems to favor more positive attitudes toward the low vitality group and a greater desire to integrate that community, without any concomitant desire to abandon L1 culture.

The results of this study have strong implications for further research in bilingual education. There is a need for studies that will take into consideration simultaneously the effects of different models of bilingual education and those related to the vitality of the ethnolinguistic community, especially the strength of the ethnolinguistic contacts experienced by the students in the family and the socio-institutional milieus. There is also a need to adapt bilingual programs to these networks of linguistic contacts so that additive bilingualism as globally defined herein is fostered. Indeed, the results of this study seem to imply that the effects of bilingual education cannot be understood without considering the strong influence of the children's sociolinguistic environment.

Footnote

1. This paper was presented at the twentieth annual International Bilingual / Bicultural Education Conference of the National Association for Bilingual Education, Washington, D.C. January 9-12, 1991. The research presented was funded by the Secretary of State of the Government of Canada and the Faculté des études supérieures et de la recherche, Université de Moncton, Canada.

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DESCUBRIENDO LA LECTURA: AN EARLY INTERVENTION SPANISH LANGUAGE LITERACY PROJECT

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Abstract

During the 1989-90 school year, Descubriendo La Lectura, a Spanish language adaptation of the English Reading Recovery Project, was implemented in a large urban school district in Southern Arizona. It was the first such program of its kind in the U.S.

Descubriendo La Lectura, like its parent program, is designed to identify first grade students who are at risk of becoming poor readers, and to provide a series of intense short term learning experiences that assist identified students in the acquisition of inner control needed to become independent readers.

A pivotal aspect of the Reading Recovery English Program is the Observation Survey, which is used to identify, prescribe for and exit students from the program. Therefore, first year research efforts in Descubriendo La Lectura focused on the construction of an equivalent Spanish Observation Survey and the establishment of the validity and reliability of the survey.

For this study, data were collected on 144 first grade children who were ethnically Mexican-American and dominant Spanish speakers. All subjects were learning to read in Spanish. Data collection included the administration of the LAS (English and Spanish versions), and the administration of the La Prueba Spanish Reading Achievement Test and the Spanish Observation Survey which was developed for Descubriendo La Lectura. Data were collected from all subjects in the study in the fall of 1989.

Validity was established by comparing results of observation tasks on the Spanish Survey to the La Prueba Spanish Reading Test. Reliability was established via the Kuder Richarson test-item analysis.

Results established the Spanish Survey as valid and reliable for Mexican-American students in the study. Further, results compared favorably to validity and reliability studies conducted with the English Survey. Further study is needed, however, to establish whether or not the instrument, as is, would have to be modified or revised for use with students in different areas of the U.S. who may speak different dialects of Spanish.

Introduction

Considerable research suggests that for minority groups who experience disproportionate levels of academic failure, the extent to which students' language and culture are incorporated into the school program constitutes a significant predictor of academic success. In programs where minority students' L_1 skills are strongly reinforced, their success appears to reflect both the more solid cognitive/academic foundation developed through intensive L_1 instruction and also the reinforcement of their cultural identity (Cummins 1989). Studies to support this statement include Leasher-Madrid and Garcia (1985), Krashen and Biber (1987), Willig (1985), Escamilla (1987), Medina (1988) and Troike (1978).

Without a doubt, the above research establishes a strong base of support for bilingual education and the use of a child's native language in initial literacy instruction. Further, it appears that for the majority of language minority students in the United States, initial success in native language literacy provides a base for subsequent success in second language literacy (Escamilla, 1987; Medina, 1988; Leyba, 1978; Thonis, 1983).

However, in spite of the above achievements and the overall positive impact of bilingual education programs, there are some language minority students who have not achieved the desired results in native language or second language literacy. These students, like their English speaking counterparts, have difficulty at the beginning stages of literacy acquisition, and require special attention or "something extra" in the way of instruction if they are to achieve the levels of literacy and biliteracy needed to be academically successful.

Typically, this "something extra" has taken the form of pull-out, compensatory programs, designed to remediate the student's academic weakness. Pull-out programs for language minority and majority students, largely funded through Chapter I programs in local elementary school districts, have been widely criticized during the past few years (Barrera, 1989; Allington, 1988). This criticism asserts that students who are identified for remediation are, in fact, never remediated. The same students continue to participate in remedial programs year after year. Further, there is little evidence to suggest that, as a result of participation in these programs, student achievement improves (Barrera, 1989; Allington, 1988).

In response to this criticism, some remediation programs have turned their attention toward early identification and intervention of reading difficulties. This is done with the hope of cycling students as quickly as possible into and out of intervention and back into a regular classroom experience. Educational innovations of this nature include a project called Reading Recovery which was first developed and implemented in New Zealand (Clay, 1989). The Reading Recovery program was first implemented in the United States in 1988 in a program in Ohio.

Reading Recovery programs in both places have focused their efforts on identifying students in early elementary grades who are at risk of becoming poor readers. These students are usually the students who are achieving in the lowest 20% in a school regardless of how the lowest 20% is defined. Once identified, these students are provided an experience known as "something extra." This "something extra" is a series of intensive one-on-one lessons that are designed to guide students in their efforts to become literate. The goal of the program is to help children develop an independent, self-generating system for reading, the kind that good readers have, so that they can keep on learning to read better as they gain experience (Pinnell, 1988). The intervention involves trained Reading

Recovery teachers who provide "something extra" lessons to students 4-5 times per week for 30 minutes each lesson. The recovery process generally lasts from 12-15 weeks. Again, the focus is to enable students to construct inner control and meaning which will enable them to be successful readers without additional remedial help. It is important to note that these lessons do not take the place of good classroom instruction. Rather, they supply the "something extra" that may be needed to help initial low achievers accelerate and catch-up with their peers.

The above approach has met with great success in many areas and with many children where it has been implemented (Clay, 1989; Pinnell, 1988, 1990; Pinnell, Fried & Estice, 1990). However, only recently has this approach been applied with Spanish speaking children in the Southwestern United States.

Beginning in school year 1988-89, a Reading Recovery Project conducted in Spanish for Spanish-speaking students was implemented in a large school district in Southern Arizona. The unique aspect of this program is that it has adapted the Reading Recovery model in a way that utilizes the student's native language for instruction and incorporates the cultural background of the students into the Reading Recovery situation. Culture is incorporated by using children's literature that is written in Spanish and which reflects teh child's cultural experience, in this case, the Mexican-American experience in the Southwest U.S. There is a soundness for doing Reading Recovery in Spanish as one of the theoretical underpinning's of the program asserts that in order to encourage literacy acquisition, the most powerful teaching builds on competence instead of deficits (Pinnell, 1990). This program uses student competence in Spanish and the student's cultural background as a basis for developing literacy.

Research Questions:

As with any type of research that is designed to adapt a program that has been successful with one group of students to students of different cultural and linguistic groups, the problem of where to begin arises. Obviously a number of very interesting research projects could be conducted provided sufficient time and resources were available. However, the first year research efforts focused primarily on studying the adaptation of the Reading Recovery Observation Survey from English to Spanish. Such research is crucial to Descubriendo la Lectura efforts since this survey is used to identify students, plan instructional interventions and, finally, it is used to discontinue students from the program. Research in subsequent years will focus on the impact of the program on students, whether or not the initial program impact is sustained across grade levels and whether or not these strategies assist students as they begin to read in English.

Given the importance of the Observation Survey in English, the first need, for a comparable program in Spanish was to create and validate a Spanish Observation Survey that was equivalent to the English Survey used in Reading Recovery Programs. This need generated the following research questions that guided this study: 1) Is the Spanish version of the Observation Survey valid; and 2) Is the Spanish version of the Observation Survey reliable?

Research Design

Methods

The concurrent validity of the Spanish Observation Survey was established by administering the survey to 144 first grade students who were receiving their initial reading instruction in Spanish. Spanish observation surveys were individually administered in the fall of 1989.

Tuckman (1978) established that concurrent validity can be determined by comparing results of one measure designed to test a group's ability to subsequent measures of their success on a test whose validity has already been established. Therefore, to establish validity for the Spanish Observation Survey, results from each observational task of the survey were compared to results of the same students on the La Prueba Spanish Achievement Test (reading section), also administered in the fall of 1989. Correlation coefficients were then calculated to assess validty. The La Prueba Spanish Achievement Test (reading section) was used as the criterion variable since its validity had alreay been established (La Prueba, 1984). Concurrent validity of the English Observation Survey was similarly established by Clay (1989) by comparing the Reading Recovery English Observation Survey to the Word Test, an English standardized reading achievement test.

To assess the reliability of the Spanish Observation Survey, test results on each observational task which were individually administered to the 144 first grade students in the study were once again used. Reliability was established by calculating the Kuder-Richardson reliability co-efficients of the results obtained from test administration. The Kuder-Richardson reliability co-efficient was deemed to be the most appropriate for this study, as it involves only one test administration and allows reliability to be established from item statistics. Since the Spanish Observation Survey is in the first draft of an adaptation from the English Survey, other procedures, such as reliability testing via equivalent forms of the test, were not appropriate to conduct at this time. Finally, the Kuder-Richardson formula was chosen to establish reliability since the same analyses were used to establish reliability of the English Observation Survey (Clay, 1989).

Subjects

Subjects for the study were 144 first grade students who had been identified as being either Spanish dominant or bilingual via the Language Assessment Scales (LAS Test). This test was administered by trained testers in Sept. 1989. All students were participating in bilingual education classrooms and all were receiving their initial reading instruction in Spanish. All students met state criteria for being considered limited English proficient students meaning that their score on the English version of the LAS was 3 or below on a scale of 1 - 5. Subjects included 77 girls and 67 boys. All subjects were considered to be low-income based on free and reduced lunch information from their schools. With regard to ethnicity, all subjects were of Mexican-American descent with the majority of students being from families who are first generation U.S. residents. Students were identified as Spanish dominant or bilingual based on the results of the state mandated Language Assessment Test (LAS). Of the study subjects

75% were monolingual Spanish, 22% were Spanish dominant and 3% were bilingual.

All 144 students received the Language Assessment Scales Test, the Spanish Diagnostic Survey, and the La Prueba Spanish Achievement Test in the fall of 1989. Specific stages of data collection included the following steps. First, all students in bilingual classrooms were given the LAS test English and Spanish version in Sept. 1989. Results were used to identify first grade students who were monolingual Spanish, Spanish dominant or bilingual. After initial identification, lists of students were given to classroom teachers to identify which students were reading in Spanish. A pool of 150 students for the study was initially identified from the LAS test and Spanish reading data.

In Oct. 1989, data collection of the La Prueba Test and Spanish Observation Survey were collected via the following procedures. La Prueba (reading test only) was administered according to test administration directions by individual classroom teachers. La Prueba is a group administered test. The Spanish Observation Survey was individually administered to students by a tester who was trained in Reading Recovery assessment techniques.

In order to eliminate the possibility of practice test effects, some of the students took the La Prueba test first and the Spanish Observation Survey second. Others took the Spanish Observation Survey first and the La Prueba second. All data collection was complete by Nov. 1989.

Instrumentation

The Spanish Observation Survey

During school year 1988-89, the Spanish Observation Survey was constructed with the intention of being equivalent to the English version in both content and form. As an equivalent version, however, it is important to note that it was not a direct translation. As with the English Survey, the Spanish Survey has six observational tasks. Clay (1989) has found that these observational tasks are highly correleated to initial success in literacy. Children who are successful readers not only build up knowledge of individual items related to each observational task, but more importantly, learn to utilize all of the tasks as needed when they engage in reading activities.

Each of the six observational tasks is discussed below along with a discussion of how the Spanish version differs from the English.

1. **Letter Identification** (identificación de letras) - This observation measure consists of 61 items in which children are asked to identify different characters, including upper and lower case letters and conventional print for the letters "a" and "g." In Spanish, the letters ch, ñ, rr, and ll were also added as they exist in Spanish but not English. Children's responses were considered to be correct if they identified the name of the letter, its sound or a word that begins with the letter. This observational task provides information about a child's awareness of letters. The letters k and w were not dropped from this task as children in this project, by virtue of living in the United States are exposed to these letters in their print environment.

2. **Word Test** (prueba de palabras) - This observational task consists of a list of 20 words that children are asked to read. While children in Reading

Recovery are never asked to read isolated words, this section provides information about a child's basic sight vocabulary and any reading strategies he/she may have. The English Word Test, used in Reading Recovery Projects in Ohio, was developed from high frequency sight words used in an English basal reading series (Pinnell, 1988). The Spanish Word Test selected words from the Cornejo list of high frequency words in Spanish (Cornejo, 1980), and from the Brigance Diagnostic Assessment of Basic Skills (1984). A major difference between the two lists is that the Spanish word test, consistent with the high frequency words in the language, consists of words that are phonetically regular in the language. The English word test consists primarily of words that are phonetically irregular. As this list was developed, careful consideration was given to the selection of words that do not vary greatly across dialects of Spanish. This was done so as not to bias the test in favor of speakers of one dialect of Spanish over another. This will be important as Reading Recovery in Spanish expands to other sites in the U.S.

3. **Concepts About Print** (conceptos del texto impreso) - This observational task is designed to note a child's awareness of significant concepts about print. To observe these concepts, a teacher reads a little book with pictures to a child and then interacts with her/him about the book. The 24 items included in this task provide information about print concepts such as book handling, directional behavior, concepts about printed language such as punctuation marks, and hierarchical concepts such as seeing letters, letters within words, and words within sentences. The English book Stones was translated into Spanish to be used in this task.

4. **Writing** (prueba del vocabulario escrito) - Given ten minutes, children are asked to write as many words as they know. After the children have exhausted their own supply of words, the teacher provides prompts such as, "Can you write your name?" "Can you write the name of a friend? ..." In the Spanish version, the teacher provides these prompts in Spanish, but accepts as correct, words that the student produces in either Spanish or English.

5. **Dictation Test** (dictado) - This task includes 39 items where the teacher reads a simple story, and asks the child to try to write it. The teacher notes the child's ability to hear sounds in words and reproduce them in print. In Spanish many letters make the same sound, for example, c,z, s and ll and y, and this was considered when developing the task. Therefore, the child is given credit for a word if he/she writes a word that is phonetically correct even if it is misspelled (e.g. yevo for llevo; substituting y for ll; substituting ce for que; substituting c or z for s; and omitting h from a word - in Spanish, h is a silent letter). Given the differences in Spanish and English, it would have been inappropriate to simply translate the English dictation sentences into Spanish. Therefore, original Spanish dictation sentences were developed for this task with the intent of creating a task equivalent to the English task which allows for observation of a child's ability to apply concepts of sound/symbol correspondence.

6. **Text Reading** - An observation of the child's reading behavior which determines the child's instructional level. Text reading is not a separate observational task, but an integration of all other observational tasks. The teacher takes a "running record" (a type of miscue analysis) while the child reads

an extended piece of text. In certain texts, the teacher provides a prompt to give background information and an introduction to facilitate having the child read the text. In the beginning level texts, 1-3, the teacher does most of the reading and asks the child to read predictable language patterns in stories that are repeated after modeling. Beginning with level 4 books, children are asked to read independently. The running record is later analyzed for information about how the child was able to use the cueing systems of meaning, language structure, and visual information (MSV). The text-reading level score represents the level of difficulty at which the child can read with at least 90-percent accuracy. The major differences between Spanish and English for this task was the need to identify and level books in Spanish. Using the criteria proposed by Petersen (1988), for leveling books for English Reading Recovery Programs, Spanish books were identified and grouped into levels from A to 20, A being the easiest and 20 being the most difficult. These Spanish books included books that were originally written in Spanish, as well as English books that had been translated into Spanish.

La Prueba Riverside de Realización en Español - Spanish Achievement Test

The La Prueba Spanish Achievement Test (reading section) was used as the criterion variable in the validation of the Spanish Diagnostic Survey. The instrument has been designed to determine the degree to which students are literate in Spanish, and to assess the achievement of students whose primary language is Spanish (La Prueba, 1984).

Content validity for the test has been established. Translations of the reading, language arts and mathematics test were carefully reviewed by persons who were native Spanish speakers and content area specialists to verify that the items measure the same content skills found in the 3R's Test (La Prueba, 1984).

The Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 test-retest procedure was used to establish the reliability for the test. The reliability estimate for the Spanish reading test yielded reliability values with a median of .77 establishing the test as reliable. Other reliability and validity information on La Prueba can be found in the Technical Summary (1984).

Language Assessment Scales (LAS)

The Language Assessment Scales (LAS short form) was used in the study to identify the language dominance and relative language proficiency of subjects in the study. The LAS has both a long and short form and Spanish and English versions. The LAS Technical Manual (1983) incorporates five years of research on issues related to the reliability and validity of the instrument.

Construct validity of the LAS short form was established by the correlation between long and short total raw scores which was .98 and between oral proficiency levels on the two versions which was reported as .97 (DeAvila & Duncan, 1983).

The LAS short form has 3 sub-scales (listening, comprehension and oral production). Results of sub-scale scores are converted to five oral langauge proficiency levels for the purposes of normative interpretation. Students are considered to be proficient in a language if their overall levels are 4 or 5. Level 3 is considered to be indicative of a limited speaker and levels 1 and 2 are considered to be non-speakers (Duncan & DeAvila, 1983). A student is considered to be dominant in a language if the language score in one language (e.g. Spanish) is higher than the score in the other language. Students are considered to be bilingual if they score at level 4 or 5 on both language versions.

Data Analysis

Results

In the fall of 1989, all 144 subjects took the Spanish Diagnostic Survey, and the La Prueba Test (reading section). All subjects had previously been given the Language Assessment Scales (LAS) Test, in English and in Spanish, and had been assessed to be either monolingual Spanish, Spanish dominant or bilingual. All subjects met state requirements as being limited-English proficient. Mean scores for each observational task of the Spanish Diagnostic Survey and the La Prueba Test are reported in table 1 below.

Table 1: Spanish Diagnostic Test Mean Score Results for Observational Tasks and La Prueba Mean Raw Scores Fall 1989

Observational Task	Mean	Standard Deviation
Letter Identification (61 items)	29.0	24.9
Word Test (20 items)	2.3	3.7
Concepts about Print (24 items)	8.8	3.7
Writing Vocabulary (open ended)	7.0	10.2
Dictation(39 items)	8.2	9.4
Text Reading (20 levels)	1.1	3.3
La Prueba Test	12.5	4.0

N=144

From table 1 (above), it is apparent that these measures appeared to be difficult for the students in the study. These measures are intended for first grade students and study subjects were, in fact, first grade students. However, these subjects were at the beginning of their first grade year and had not yet completed two months of instruction before being tested. This could account for the skewing of results toward the lower end of the scale. Further, subjects in the study were not randomly selected. All first grade students reading in Spanish were tested. This population represents the population of students from which Spanish Reading Recovery students will be selected and therefore, it was necessary to establish validity and reliability with them.

In order to conduct the validity analyses for this study, the raw scores noted in Table 1 above were converted to standard scores to calculate correlation coefficients for the 6 observation tasks of the Spanish Diagnostic Survey. They were then compared to the La Prueba Spanish Reading Test. Analyses were conducted using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Formula. They are presented in Table 2 below.

Results of the analyses indicated that the observational tasks of Letter Identification, Word Test, Concepts about Print, Writing Vocabulary,and Text Level Reading were moderately correlated to La Prueba. The dictation results showed a modest correlation to La Prueba. Overall, however, results from this analysis established the validity of the Spanish Diagnostic Survey. Correlation coefficients are presented in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2: Correlation between Spanish Diagnostic Survey Observation Tasks and La Prueba Spanish Reading Test

Observation Task	R
Letter Identification	.68
Word Test	.53
Concepts about Print	.66
Writing Vocabulary	.52
Dictation	.37
Text Level Reading	.68
N = 144	

In order to examine the reliability of the Spanish Diagnostic Test, test reliability was estimated using item statistics from the test administration in October 1989 to 144 first grade students who were receiving their initial reading instruction in Spanish. The method of analysis is known as the Kuder-Richardson procedure and provides a reliability coefficient. The Kuder-Richardson procedure was applied to 5 of the 6 observational tasks in the study. These included Letter Identification, Word Test, Concepts about Print, Dictation, and Text Reading.

It was not possible to apply the Kuder-Richardson procedure to the Writing Vocabulary observational task since it is an inappropriate procedure for timed tests and the writing vocabulary observation task is timed (a student has 10 minutes to write words) (Tuckman, 1978). This entire study will be replicated during the 1991-92 school year with a larger sample of first grade students at different sites. Reliability of the Writing Vocabulary observational task will be established at that time. It is important to note that the results of the observational task titled "Text Reading" are reported in levels (e.g. A, B, 1, 2, etc.). However, to establish reliability, it was necessary instead to convert all of the book levels to numeric levels. Thus, levels A and B became levels 1 and 2 and therefore there were a total of 22 levels.

Reliability coefficients for each of the five observational tasks on the Spanish Diagnostic Survey are reported in Table 3 below.

TABLE 3: Kuder-Richardson Reliability Coefficients For Spanish Diagnostic Survey Observational Tasks

Observation Task	KR 21r
Letter Identification	.96
Word Test	.92
Concepts about Print	.64
Writing Vocabulary	—
Dictation	.95
Text Reading	.98
N = 144	

Results of both the validity and reliability analyses conducted in this study compare very favorably to results obtained in the validity and reliability tests conducted by Clay (1985) on the original version of the English Diagnostic Survey.

Summary and Future Research

To summarize, from the results reported above, it has been established that the Spanish Diagnostic Survey is both valid and reliable for the purposes of use in Spanish Reading Recovery Programs involving Mexican-American students in the Southwestern U.S. Using these data, normalized scores can be established, thus making the survey an appropriate vehicle for identifying students in the lowest 20% who may benefit from the Descubriendo la Lectura Project. In the fall of 1991, this research project will be replicated at different school sites and with students who speak different dialects of Spanish. This will further enable the researchers to establish the validity and reliability of this survey. The establishment of a valid, reliable observational instrument also forms the basis for future research in the Descubriendo la Lectura Project. Proposed research projects include: 1) Case studies of students who have participated in the Descubriendo la Lectura Project and have subsequently been discontinued to determine the project impact on their literacy development in Spanish; 2) Follow-up studies with the same children to assess the impact of Descubriendo la Lectura in subsequent school years on the acquisition of Spanish and English literacy; and 3) Further identification and leveling of literature materials, particularly those originally written in Spanish, for use in the project.

Finally, it must once again be stated, that this project, by definition and design is truly innovative, for it is the only such project, to date, that is applying Reading Recovery concepts to language minority, LEP students using their native language (Spanish), and incorporating the student's culture. It is, therefore, a true attempt to fully utilize a student's strengths to develop literacy.

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EMERGING LITERACY IN A TWO-WAY BILINGUAL FIRST GRADE CLASSROOM

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Abstract

As the whole language approach to teaching literacy receives increased emphasis, the effects of whole language instruction on young children's learning requires investigation. This study examines the emerging journal writing skills of sixteen monolingual Spanish-speaking Mexican American and ten monolingual English-speaking first grade students in a whole-language, two-way bilingual first grade classroom. The children in this classroom approached the writing task from unique and individual perspectives. We found that the children combined drawing and writing in their early journals, experimented with alphabetic forms and shapes, wrote lists, repeated patterns of letters, words and sentences. The children were using their early journals for egocentric writing activities, actively constructing writing schema through manipulation and experimentation. As the year progressed, the journals became more audience oriented as the children interacted with peers, teachers and researchers. We hope that classrooms such as the one we are studying will become the norm, where children are allowed to develop interactive literacy skills in a natural and supportive environment.

As the whole language approach to teaching literacy receives increased emphasis, the effects of whole language instruction on young children's learning requires investigation. Especially important is the impact on linguistically diverse children (children whose first language is not English). This paper describes the initial phase of a five-year study designed to examine the emerging writing skills of 26 children who are acquiring English or Spanish as their second language in a two-way bilingual classroom which uses a whole language philosophy.

The disproportionate underachievement of Mexican American and other language-minority students in the United States is well documented (Cummins, 1989). The academic failure of Mexican American students historically has been attributed to their lack of English language proficiency (Cummins, 1989). Although research exists that examines the language patterns of Mexican American and other ethnolinguistically distinct students, these studies have been limited primarily to descriptions of code switching behavior and oral English and Spanish language usage in the classroom.

Few researchers have examined the emerging written academic language skills of linguistically diverse children across languages in nontraditional settings such as the whole language classroom (Y. Goodman, 1986). Studying the emerging literacy of children learning a second language (Spanish and English) may begin to provide a broad picture of patterns of written language acquisition (Dyson,1985; Edelsky,1986; Hudelson,1989). Dyson (1985) suggests that such study will provide "insight into the complex interrelated variables and the varied paths children take as they develop" (p. 60).

The present study focuses on the paths that children take as their writing emerges. Their daily journal writing forms the data base. The research questions revolve around the emergence of literacy and the effect of being in a whole language classroom where acquisition of a new language is taking place. Specifically, the questions which we raised are the following:

1. Are there stages of development in children's writing in their primary language as they move towards becoming part of a literate community?
2. Do these stages differ for native Spanish speakers as compared to native English speakers?
3. As children begin journal writing in their first language, at what point do they, spontaneously begin writing in their second language?
4. Does social interaction occur among children during journal writing, and does the interaction affect their writing efforts?

The paper will begin with a brief literature review of whole language, dialogue journals and emergent literacy. The study will be described including methodology used and results of the initial phase of the five year project. Future study will follow the same children through the fifth grade.

Literature Review

Whole Language

The term "whole language" has been used so frequently in the literature in recent years, that it has come to mean different things to different people. For the purposes of this paper, whole language is defined as a conceptual framework which emphasizes meaning, integrates language skills, uses authentic materials and respects the learner. Current research suggests that whole language instruction promises to effectively prepare ethnolinguistically distinct students for a technological society. The approach values learners' language, cultural background, and experience. K. Goodman (1986) explains "whole language classrooms respect the learners: who they are, where they come from, how they talk, what they read and what experiences they already have before coming to school" (p. 10). Whole language instruction provides ethnolinguistically distinct students with a context for learning in a purposeful way. It permits them to take an active, problem solving approach to literacy (print) which also builds their own self esteem (Bissex, 1980).

Social interaction is another critical component in children's development. Interaction promotes communication among peers and between students and the teacher, which Dyson (1989) and Graves (1981) have demonstrated is so important in learning to write. The child's interaction with another person, either teacher or more knowledgeable peer, helps the child to master more advanced and complex behaviors through what Vygotsky (1978) called the zone of proximal development. Through interaction with the environment, children discover the principles that govern their world using experimentation and manipulation as tools (Piaget, 1959).

The classroom environment also is a critical component in children's development in a whole language context. Research on language use of linguistically diverse students in traditional classrooms shows that often the way the classroom is structured (e.g., teaching format, rules of participation, etc.) inhibits the students' participation in the classroom (Au, 1979, 1980; Díaz, Moll, & Mehan, 1986; Philips, 1972). Langer (1986, 1987) contends that language minority children who do not exhibit their knowledge in ways acceptable to mainstream society are often misdiagnosed by their mainstream teachers as not possessing valued knowledge and skills.

All of these components, valuing the student, making learning about something, and the developmental considerations found in social interaction and classroom environment are integral components of a whole language philosophy. Such a philosophy as discussed above provides for classroom settings where learning can take place, particularly for linguistically diverse students.

Emergent Literacy

Virtually all children entering school for the first time have come into contact with print, whether they come from highly literate homes, or homes where reading materials are scarce. Children are exposed to print even as they walk to school. Everyday, children are faced with stop and grocery store signs. They may not be able to read those signs, but they are aware of their existence. They don't begin school without any concept of literacy. This is equally true of children who arrive in schools with little or no past schooling experience, or those who have attended pre-schools. From their previous experiential base, Y. Goodman (1986) suggests that children invent, discover, and actively construct their own schema of written language as they grow up in a literate society.

Current research findings in whole language suggest that children should begin writing as early as kindergarten, even before they can read (Sowers, 1981; Hudelson, 1989; Shanahan, 1988). Children begin to write using what they know about the names of letters in the alphabet and familiar bits of written language in the environment (Farr, 1985). Writing instruction should follow a whole language perspective which emphasizes use of authentic (student chosen) topics for real audiences and authentic texts for reading (Hudelson, 1989). The importance of learning to write at a young age is further supported by recent research showing that children who write well in a language tend to read well in that language and also possess strong oral skills--although the reverse may not be true (Eisterhold Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, & Kuehn, 1990; Kuhlman & De Avila, in press).

An important early stage in writing development is composed of playing with letters and numbers, often before using print for communication. Decorating alphabetic letters is an example of this, as is scribbling on the walls at home. Clay (1975) found that in their earliest writing, young children experimented with language symbols and how they are segmented (e.g. into syllables); decorated and repeated standard alphabetic and numeric forms, and made inventories and lists. During this last stage children appeared to take stock of their own learning by listing or ordering aspects of their knowledge. Graves

(1981) too found that children played with writing as they explored size, shape and the appearance of letters.

Play, as supported in the whole language philosophy, is integral to children's developmental writing. Vygotsky (1978) contended that in play "a child always behaves beyond his average age, above his daily behavior; in play it is as though he were a head taller than himself" (p. 102). In addition, Vygotsky believed that such make-believe play is a major precursor to the development of written language and that "make-believe play, drawing, and writing can be viewed as different moments in an essentially unified process ..." (p. 102). As writing for communication becomes more important to the child, this focus on playful, self-centered or egocentric writing decreases. The child begins to pay more attention to conventions such as writing in a line, punctuation and spelling.

Aspects of children's emerging writing in addition to play, have been described by a variety of researchers. Ferriero and Teberosky (1982) have suggested five such phases: 1) the interrelationship between drawing and writing; 2) the appearance of alphabet forms; 3) the assignment of sound values to letters, one letter per syllable; 4) the special relationship which begins for the child between text and oral reading of that text, and the use of the properties of text; and 5) the resemblance of conventional writing entering into the child's text.

The patterns mentioned above have been found for both native English speaking children and for those learning English as a second language. Hudelson (1984) claims that the:

> ... written products of ESL children look very much like those of young native speakers learning to write English, exhibiting such features as unconventional invented spelling and letter forms, unconventional segmentation and punctuation, and the use of drawing as well as writing to express ideas (p. 21).

Although similar patterns have been found in children's texts, most researchers conclude that these are not fixed nor necessarily sequential (Dyson, 1986; Graves, 1981). Individual children write for individual purposes and use their journals to resolve individual problems with segmentation, spelling and making meaning. Sulzby (1986) cautions "we do not yet have an exhaustive list of the writing systems used by children, nor a defensible categorization of those that are functionally equivalent" (p.68).

How children's writing (and reading) skills emerge in a natural environment continually will be a source of study. The factors that influence this emergence are many. The present study hopes to add to the body of knowledge in these areas.

Journal Writing

The present study examines one particular event, journal writing, which has received increasing interest over the past decade, particularly in whole language classrooms. Journals provide for authentic writing situations as opposed to artificial writing that occurs in many classrooms. They place the student in control: the child chooses what, how, and how much to write. Edelsky, (1986) has described authentic writing as that which is done in order to communicate, in other words, for a purpose.

Interactive (or dialogue) journals provide authentic experiences through written communication between the writer and reader, (usually the teacher or peer). When responding to a child's journal, the teacher models various forms of writing as well as correct spelling, grammatical structures and new vocabulary. In this way the child learns through example rather than direct instruction (Kreeft Peyton & Reed, 1990). Interactive journals thus stretch the child's experience, helping to promote Vygotsky's zone of proximal development as discussed earlier (1978).

The first comprehensive study of interactive journals in the classroom setting was described by Staton, et al. (1988) who found that the functional context, cognitive demands, and personalized education of interactive journals allow for learning and growth. Other researchers have had similar positive results using dialogue journals with English as a second language (ESL) students from diverse linguistic populations (Edelsky, 1986; Hudelson, 1989; Kreeft Peyton, 1990; Seda and Abramson, 1990). For example, Flores and Hernández (1988) found such experiences effective with Spanish speaking populations acquiring English because they allowed the children to learn that writing is communication. Journal writing encouraged the children to take risks in their first and second language and to experience ownership of the written product. Such ownership in writing development is an important aspect of journal writing. According to Graves (1981):

> ... when people own a place, they look after it; but when it belongs to someone else they couldn't care less. It's that way with writing. From the first day...we teachers must become totally aware of our awful daily temptation to take control away from them, whether by too much prescription or correction, or even advice. (p.8)

Children's use of journal writing to express themselves, provides children a comfortable place for social interaction with others, a sense of ownership for self, and a way to expand one's experiences with print.

Methodology

Setting

During the 1990-1991 academic year, all of the daily journal writing of 26 first grade children was examined.

The children who took part in this study live in a small semi-rural area of northern San Diego County. The community of 90,000 is composed of primarily lower and middle class residents.

The school follows a four quarter year round model which begins the end of July with 3-4 week breaks in October, December-January, April and July. Approximately 10% of the children attending the school of 1100 are limited English proficient as determined by state approved assessment criteria. These 10% are primarily the offspring of migrant and other farm workers in the area.

The school provides bilingual education for those whose first language is Spanish through the fourth grade, although children may be exited sooner based on various district and school criteria. In addition, each bilingual classroom has at least ten native English speaking children who are acquiring Spanish, resulting in a two-way bilingual program. In the target classroom, the children were divided for primary language instruction in the mornings. The English speakers were sent to another classroom and Spanish speakers from that classroom were sent to Ms. B's (the target teacher) class. In the afternoons, the original 26 students received all instruction in Spanish two days per week and two days in English. The fifth day the children chose the language of instruction. Afternoon instruction included language arts, math, science and P.E.

Sample

The classroom teacher, Ms. B., has a basic and advanced credential in elementary bilingual education as well as a language development specialist certificate and an M.A. in Education (Policy Studies). She has been a bilingual teachers for over ten years. As well, Ms. B is a strong advocate for primary language instruction and teaches from a whole language perspective.

Initially, ten native English speakers (five male and five female) and sixteen native Spanish speaking children (seven male and nine female, all limited English proficient) comprised the sample. All the children were between the ages of 6 and 7. One English speaking boy left the school in October and two Spanish speakers (one boy and one girl) left in the spring. The majority of the children also had attended kindergarten at the same school but had done little organized writing.

Data collection

The children wrote ten minutes per day immediately after lunch, on blank paper in either Spanish or English as they wished, on any topic and in anyway they wished. The teacher also wrote during this period of time. She would sometimes indicate to the children what she was writing to provide them with real examples of how writing was used, e.g. a letter to parents about a field trip or a list for the supply room.

During the first two quarters of the school year (August - December) all the children read their journals aloud to whomever might be in the classroom, parent, aide, teacher, research assistant, or researcher. Once a week the researchers and/or the research assistant observed the students writing and their interactions with other children, kept an observation journal and tape recorded all of the children reading their journals aloud. The tape recordings later were transcribed for comparison with the written journals. Videotapes also were made several times during the spring to enable analysis of the student interactions.

During the last school quarter (May - July), on days when tape recording was not taking place, only volunteers (usually a table of six children) were chosen to read aloud to the class. The teacher, however, had begun responding in writing to each child's work beginning with the second quarter (October). An example of an early teacher response was simply "Pretty letters". An example from later in the school year was "What else do you like to play besides soccer?"

Analysis of Data

Journal analysis followed ethnographic procedures which requires no preconceived notions of how the patterns would emerge. Each child's journal was charted over the four quarters of the school year and similar categories identified. These categories coincided with those of other researchers (e.g. Clay, 1975; Graves, 1981; and Ferriero & Teberosky, 1982). The data were not analyzed for mechanics of writing, e.g. spelling, punctuation or grammar, nor for specific content. Transcriptions of the audio tapes, particularly at the beginning of the school year, often aided in the deciphering of the children's writing and invented spelling. In addition, information from the observation journals and videotaping were examined to identify what social interactions may have affected the children's writing.

Findings

Patterns

Early Journals (August-October). These 26 children entered the first grade with varying prior writing experiences. They approached the writing task from unique and individual perspectives. However, like other researchers (Clay 1975; Ferriero and Taberosky, 1982), we found over the course of the first few weeks several types of entries that appeared repeatedly in the journals. These included drawings; experimentations with forms and shapes; random letters and numbers; letters and numbers in order (and repeated); lists (e.g. colors, names, and rhyming words); and sentences. The children were using their early journals for egocentric (self-centered rather than other centered) writing activities, actively constructing writing schema through manipulation and experimentation. As the year progressed, the journals became more audience oriented as the children interacted with peers, teachers, and the researchers. Four of the patterns the children used most frequently are shown in Figure 1. They include squiggles/drawing; alphabet letters; lists; and sentences.

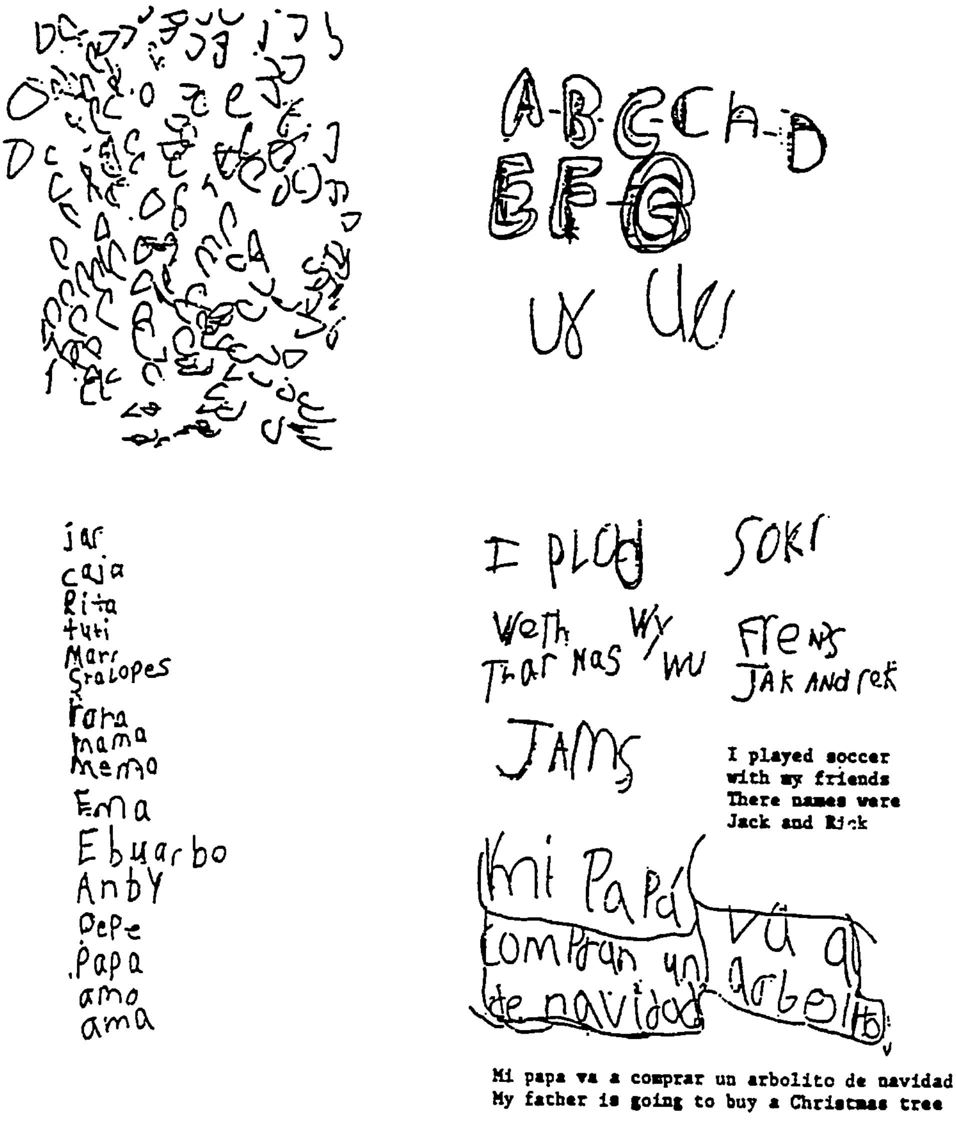
Second quarter journals (October-December). By the new quarter in October, all the children appeared to have internalized a sense that numbers and letters represented different things, and that letters were used in "writer's workshop" (what the teacher called the time for journal writing). In addition, at this time, several children, both Spanish and English speaking, began writing only sentences. This change occurred from the day they returned from their quarter break.

Third and fourth quarter journals (January-June). By the end of the second school quarter in December, no children were making number lists in their journals, and only a few of the Spanish speakers (no English speakers) were still making alphabet lists. Table I shows the progressive stages through which the children moved throughout the year. Differences between Spanish and English speakers can also be seen.

Differences between Spanish and English speakers.

The majority of Spanish speaking children drew or wrote the alphabet and numbers in their journals at first, either randomly or in alphabetic and numerical order, while most of the English speaking children were at the list or sentence

Figure 1: Examples of children's progression from squiggles (upper left), alphabet (upper right), lists (lower left) and sentences (lower right).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compran un arbolito
de navidad

I played soccer
with my friends
There names were
Jack and Rick

Mi papa va a comprar un arbolito de navidad
My father is going to buy a Christmas tree

Table 1: Number of children in each stage by month

	Drawing/ Squiggles	Name only	Letters/Numbers		Lists/ Words	Sentences	
			Random	In order			
AUG							
ES	0	0	0	3	3	4	=10
SS	3	1	7	5	0	0	=16
OCT							
ES	0	0	0	0	3	6	=9*
SS	1	2	7	4	0	2	=16
DEC							
ES	0	0	0	0	0	9	=9
SS	0	0	7	1	5	3	=16
JUNE							
ES	0	0	0	0	0	9	=9
SS	0	0	0	2	12		=14**

Note. ES = English speaking; SS = Spanish speaking; NSS = New Spanish speaking *One English speaking (ES) student left after the first quarter **Two Spanish speaking (SS) students left after the third quarter making stage, with some illustrations (see Table I). By January, one English speaking child had written a list in Spanish, and one Spanish speaking child had written a list in English and Spanish. However, no other instances of children writing in their second language occurred during the school year.

Another difference between the native English and Spanish speakers was that from the beginning the English speakers accurately read their journal entries aloud, while the Spanish speakers tended to write letters and read sentences. The majority of the Spanish speaking children also read their journals aloud in very soft voices, while the English speaking children spoke with more confidence. Perhaps the Spanish speakers had had fewer opportunities to read aloud previously. By March, however, all of the children read loudly enough for the whole class to hear.

Peer Interaction

One of the most important findings to date, however, has not come from the analyses of the journals, but rather from the researchers' classroom observations and informal interviews. It appears that the children were learning from each other. One observer found that children listened to each other when journals were read aloud. Children also leaned over and watched while neighbors were writing. This is consistent with a finding by Dyson (1989) that over time individual children will begin to incorporate into their own approach the composing activity first made visible by others in their journals.

We observed several specific instances of this in our study. One occured with two Spanish speaking children who had been watching and listening to their peers for 12 weeks, but were drawing or writing letters only. One day, during journal writing, both whispered "Mira, mira" (look, look) to the most fluent Spanish speaker at their table, showing off proudly that they had both written down all the names of their tablemates.

On another occasion, the graduate assistant asked a native English speaking child, "Who do you think is a good writer in the class?" The child answered that John was, "because he can write in Spanish. I saw his journal and I thought, maybe I can do that too!" Events like these can only occur in a classroom where children are free to interact with each other and to make their own writing choices, where they are allowed ownership of their work.

Discussion

This paper has posed four questions. The first asked whether there were patterns that these first grade children would exhibit in journal writing, whether it was in English or in Spanish. It can easily be seen from Table I that indeed there were such identifiable patterns. However, although there was a steady progression among all the children towards sentence (or message) making, it is important to note that individual children did not pass through each of the above mentioned stages, while others moved back and forth. This finding is congruent with the work of Dyson (1985) and Sulzby (1986) for monolingual students, and Edelsky (1986) and Hudelson (1989) for bilingual students. For example, John (a native English speaker) wrote this sentence on the first day of school:
MUNDUA
I SURTID FRSGRAD

IWUS VERE
IKSIDID
(Monday, I started first grade I was very excited)

The majority of John's entries for the next month, however, were word lists (shapes, places, opposites). In October he began to write sentences every day, describing his school day and week-end activities. This continued until February when he went back to list making, however writing the months of the year and the days of the week in Spanish. He, like many other children reverted to "simpler forms" when attempting advanced writing tasks, in this case, writing in his second language.

The second question asked whether there was a difference in these patterns between the Spanish and English speakers, when they were writing in their native languages. No differences were found. Children began at different stages, however, and it appeared that more Spanish speaking children began the first grade at the play, scribbling and drawing stage, while more of the English speaking children began at the word list stage (see Table I). This difference may be attributed to whether the children had had exposure to writing in kindergarten and/or at pre-school. In fact, most of the Spanish speaking children's kindergarten experience was focused on oral language (English) and not on writing skills.

The third question asked at what point the children might begin writing in their second language in their journals. During the observation period, only two children actively began to write in the new language. One English speaking boy (John) wrote days and months in Spanish. As indicated other children observed this and indicated a desire to do the same, but didn't. During January one child whose first language was Spanish wrote colors in both Spanish and English. These two examples were the only occurrences of carry over in journal writing, although all children had the opportunity to write in Spanish and English during their afternoon sessions in other curriculum areas.

Finally, the fourth question considered the impact of social interaction on children's writing. There were clear indications that such interaction made a substantial difference. As children at further stages on the writing continuum (e.g. list making) were observed, that appeared to cause children at the drawing stages to reach for those higher levels. In addition, children who saw their peers writing in a second language were encouraged to do so themselves.

Conclusion

In classrooms where the opportunity for authentic and meaningful writing takes place, such as in the one studied here, children will grow in their knowledge of print as they become part of our literate society. The patterns and interactions we have observed are just the beginning. As we watch these children over the next few years we expect to learn more about the natural acquisition of print and how it is used in meaningful contexts. We also expect to see natural journeys between writing in English and in Spanish, of which we saw little this year.

Edelsky (1989) found in her study of 27 children that even when program philosophies encouraged whole language approaches, "actual practice was considerably different" (p. 167). We hope that classrooms such as the one we are studying will become the norm, where children are allowed to develop interactive literacy skills in a natural and supportive environment.

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EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION: A COMPARISON OF THE BEHAVIOR AND LANGUAGE DISTRIBUTION OF LEP STUDENTS IN REGULAR AND EFFECTIVE EARLY CHILDHOOD CLASSROOMS

Lilliam Malavé

Abstract

This paper discusses a study that investigated the characteristics of effective bilingual early childhood settings and the behavior of limited-English proficient students in bilingual effective and regular classrooms. It presents characteristics of effective bilingual teachers in relation to the characteristics identified in the literature and the perception of parents and administrators. In addition, the paper compares verbal and nonverbal behaviors and the language distribution patterns of LEP students participating in selected bilingual effective classrooms with students participating in regular bilingual classrooms. The study findings illustrate behaviors and language patterns which are present in both types of classrooms, and single-out behaviors that are predominant in the effective bilingual classrooms.

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to compare the behavior and language distribution patterns of limited-English proficient (LEP) students participating in regular and effective bilingual early childhood classrooms. Specifically, the study examined the verbal and nonverbal behavior of first, second and third graders who participated in bilingual early childhood classrooms. In addition, it identified the characteristics that parents and administrators considered an effective teacher should possess. It compared the behavior and language patterns of LEP students in regular bilingual classrooms with those of the LEP students in effective classrooms nominated by parents and administrators.

Three research questions were addressed:

1) What are the characteristics that parents and administrators perceive an effective bilingual teacher should possess?
2) How do verbal and nonverbal behaviors vary when comparing LEP students participating in such effective bilingual classrooms with LEPs in regular bilingual classrooms?
3) How do verbal and nonverbal behaviors vary when comparing LEP students participating in effective bilingual classrooms with LEPs in regular bilingual classrooms in two subject areas: reading and math?

Review of the Literature

The literature in the field of bilingual-early childhood education has evolved from research conducted in the fields of bilingual/second language and early childhood education. Studies that address the area of effective bilingual/second language education reflect the research efforts of the fields of effective schools and bilingual/second language education. Conceptual frameworks that address inquiries in the field of effective bilingual early childhood instruction use paradigms generated by these three fields: effective schools, bilingual/second language education, and early childhood education. This study represents an inquiry in the field of bilingual early childhood education. It is not an evaluation report of any particular program; but an attempt to identify characteristics of effective instruction and language patterns, and the behavior of children participating in classrooms perceived as effective by parents and administrators. The review of the literature discusses formulations in the fields of: bilingual education, effective schools and early childhood.

Studies of effective bilingual instruction have focused on instructional features that are common to successful mainstream and bilingual classrooms. For example, Tikunoff (1980) reported findings of a three year nationwide investigation that identified characteristics common to effective bilingual and mainstream programs. The instructional characteristics included: 1) a strong focus on academic work, 2) a high allocation of time to subject matter content and engagement on task, 3) the use of active teaching practices, 4) the expression of high expectation for student performance, 5) an efficient classroom management, 6) the congruence between teacher intent and the organization of instruction, 7) the frequency of direct factual single-answer questions posed by the teachers instead of complex divergent questions, and 8) student involvement in large group instruction rather than unsupervised independent study. The literature in effective schools is also full of studies that describe characteristics of effective teachers which are similar to those listed by Tikunoff (Beanes, 1990; Borich, 1979; Buckner & Bickel, 1991; Cooper & Levine, 1989; Edmonds & Fredrickson, 1979; Everston, 1980).

Studies in effective bilingual instruction have singled-out "unique bilingual" features such as: 1) the utilization of L1 and L2 to mediate instructional variables, 2) social contact with native-like L2 peers and teachers, 3) the use of L1 as transmitter of cultural information, 4) language habits, 5) the quality of the instructional language, and 6) the nature of linguistic material from which the child construes English (Fillmore, 1976, 1991; Tikunoff, 1980; Tikunoff et al. 1980a, 1980b; Tikunoff, Berliner & Rist, 1975; Mace-Matluck, B.J., 1990; Olesini, 1971; Plante, 1976). García (1991) discusses characteristics of effective bilingual early childhood classrooms. He establishes that these teachers: 1) are bilingual biliterate in the two languages of the child; 2) upgrade their skills continually and serve as mentors to other teachers; 3) are responsive to changes and new developments; 4) use classroom practices that reflect the cultural and linguistic background of the children; 5) adopt a wholistic experimental approach to teaching; 6) encourage cooperation among students; 7) establish trusting and caring relationships in the classrooms; and 8) share a commitment to bilingualism, biliteracy and cultural integration.

Bredekamp (1989) discusses integrated components of developmentally appropriate practices in the primary grades. Among the teaching practices that she discusses we find: 1) the use of a curriculum that integrates content learning through projects, learning centers, playful activities, and that reflects the interests of children; 2) an environment for children to learn through active involvement with each others, adults, and older children; 3) a classroom that promotes cooperation among children; 4) settings that provide concrete and relevant learning materials; 5) adults who promote pro-social behavior, industry, and independence by providing stimulating and motivating activities; 6) educators who view parents as partners in the educational process; 7) teachers who asses progress primarily through observation and recording behaviors; 8) classrooms where the size of the adult child ratio is regulated; and 9) personnel who are appropriately trained to work with young children.

The study presented in this paper examines to the extent that the characteristics discussed in the literature of these fields are considered by parents and administrators when identifying effective-bilingual early childhood teachers. It also examines to the extent that the children observed exhibited behavior which demonstrated that they were recipients of the effective practices established in the research literature.

Methodology

Procedures and Instruments

The study consisted of two parts: a survey to identify the characteristics of effective bilingual teachers, and a series of observations to determine verbal and nonverbal behavior of LEP students in both, regular and effective classrooms. A questionnaire was developed to identify the characteristics of effective teachers. It was distributed to parents and administrators of bilingual programs with LEP students. All (100%) the questionnaires distributed were completed because it was requested that each person fill out the questionnaire while the data collector waited. Fifteen (15) parents and seven (7) administrators completed the questionnaires. The parents' sample consisted of parents of LEP children in bilingual programs, who visited the school or a community center located in the neighborhood during the week that the researchers were collecting the data. The administrators' sample consisted of a group of administrators responsible for bilingual programs who agreed to answer the questionnaires. The questionnaire included items to collect information and identify the characteristics that parents and administrators considered effective bilingual teachers should possess, and requested participants to nominate at least five effective bilingual teachers.

An observation training took place to train bilingual graduate students to conduct observations in both, the regular and effective teachers' classrooms. The observers attended a seven week/three hour per week session to learn how to conduct observations in an early-childhood setting. It was expected that through the observers' participation in the training sessions, in activities related to the development of the instruments, and in exercises related to the purpose of the study, the probability of collecting valid data would increase (Green and Everston, 1989). The observation process also fallowed the framework developed by Trueba (1982) to achieve ethnographic validity in a bilingual bicultural setting. A training manual (Malavé and Mercado, 1990) was used to conduct observations in bilingual/ESL elementary school settings. The training consisted of readings, lectures, class discussions, simulated exercises, and practice observations. The observers were enrolled in a graduate course in research in bilingual and second language education. They were familiar with the research process and with contemporary research in bilingual and ESL education.

Students conducted a review of the literature in effective schools and completed an annotated bibliography on the topic, effective bilingual and ESL education.

The observers participated in the formulation of the purpose of statement, as well as in exercises to understand the development of the observation instruments. The instruments consisted of: an observation guide to provide direction during the data collection, an observation manual with a section of definition of terms and variable indicators, a form to tally the frequencies of the behaviors for each child, an integrated tally form to include the information of both observers, a form to integrate the tallies for all the children observed according to group (effective and regular) and subject matter, and a data analysis form to determine discrepancies between the observers (refer to Malavé 1991 for a description of the instruments and the observation process).

The children were observed while engaged in instructional activities in the areas of mathematics and reading. All of the subjects but one were observed four times, for five minute periods by two observers. One subject of the regular classrooms was observed only three times for five minute periods. Observers sat close enough to the students that they could hear them and take notes, but they were expected to behave in a non-intrusive way as much as possible. Each observer took notes independently. The observers expanded their notes soon after each observation was completed to recall the classroom events accurately. To maintain the independence of the notes, the observers did not share notes at this time. The observers later reviewed the notes and typed them, numbering each line of the typewritten notes. This numeration facilitated the process of transferring the information to the analysis form, which illustrated all of the information recorded by both observers. It also assisted locating events in the original data if clarification became necessary.

A third observer also participated in the observations and the notes of this observer were used to corroborate and reconcile any differences in the notes of the other two observers. This process ensured that the pair of observers provided an accurate account of the observations and recorded all the behaviors observed. The information was categorized using the indicators from the analysis form, which were the same in the observation guide. The tally forms were used to generate quantifiable data from the information in the analysis form. A consensus between the observers was reached prior to the final categorization to prevent tabulating unclear information in the integrative form.

The integrative tally form included the frequencies for all the observations for each child, for the eight actual observations (two observers, four times each). These frequencies were transferred to another form which illustrated the observations according to type of classroom (regular and effective), subject area (mathematics and reading), and which included the observations of the fourteen (14) subjects.

The observation guide and therefore, the tally forms contained the following instructional practice indicators: grouping (small, large individual), choice (required or suggested), activity (teacher or student centered), language of instruction (native, second, both languages), and cultural carriers (language, stories, toys, audiovisuals, others). The behavior indicators were: 1) nonverbal involvement in task (eye contact, manipulation of materials, head toward, physical gestures, facial expressions, other); 2) verbal involvement and non-involvement in task (comments, talks to self, group or individual answers, ask questions); 3) nonverbal non-involvement in task (unrelated to task, ignores the material, touches other things, leaves room or task, other); and 4) verbal social interactions (child to peer, child to adult, child initiated, peer initiated, adult initiated). The indicators of child's language preference were: native, second and both languages mixed. The indicators of the purpose of both L1 and L2 were: 1) to comment, to answer individually or as part of a group, to ask questions, and to talk to self; and 2) to speak to a peer, an adult, and him/herself.

Sample

Fifteen (15) parents and seven (7) administrators completed the questionnaires. The parents had LEP students in bilingual programs and all the administrators were responsible for bilingual programs. The students' language proficiency scores on the LAS, an instrument approved by the NYS Department of Education for the official identification of LEP students, were used to determine the subjects' eligibility according to language criterion. A LAS score lower than three results in a classification as non-English speaking (NES) and one higher than three results in a fluent English speaker (FES) classification. The population of interest consisted of students classified as LEP because they scored three on the LAS.

Six (6) LEP students from the classrooms of two of the nominated effective bilingual teachers, and eight (8) LEP students from four regular classrooms were observed. The students participated in first, second and third grade bilingual classrooms. The four (4) regular classroom teachers (2nd and 3rd) volunteered to participate in the study. The two nominated effective bilingual teachers taught first and second grade. They agreed to participate in the study. The names of all the LEP students in each classroom were entered in a hat. Three names were randomly selected from each effective classroom and two names from each regular classroom. Thirty two (32) observations were conducted, but only thirty one (31) were used for this study. One of the observations for one of the subjects was completed during an ESL lesson. This study focused on reading and math instruction. The ESL classroom observation did not meet the subject area criterion and therefore, was eliminated. The regular classroom subjects were observed during reading lessons. Half of the effective classroom observations were completed during math lessons and the other half during reading activities.

LEP children were observed from six (6) bilingual early childhood teachers, two (2) nominated effective teachers and four (4) regular teachers. The teachers were given an explanation of the purpose of the study and were shown copies of the observation guide. They were asked to provide an opportunity to observe the subjects during reading and math lessons. No particular bilingual/ESL or early childhood instructional approach was selected. In addition, the study did not examine if the teachers implemented the effectiveness criteria identified by parents and administrators or the effective bilingual/ESL and early childhood practices established in the literature (A follow-up study will address this issue).

Teachers were informed that the unit of analysis was the subject's behavior, and that any information recorded pertaining to the teacher's performance would be only those behaviors which related directly to the child under observation. The observations were scheduled at the convenience of both the teachers and the observers, and only during activities in the subject areas pre-selected.

Results

Data Analysis and Statistics

The data was organized by bilingual classrooms (effective and regular) and subject areas (math and reading). Two groups of children were observed: six (6) LEP students in the nominated effective bilingual classrooms and eight (8) children in the regular bilingual classrooms.

Tables and graphs were developed to illustrate the behavior of the groups according to content area and type of classroom. Table I (p. 47-49) illustrates the percentages of classroom practices used in both, effective and regular classrooms; and the means of classroom behaviors exhibited by the children in both types of classrooms. For the purpose of this study, percentages were used to illustrate the instructional practices: grouping, choice of alternative, type of activity, language of instruction, and cultural carriers. Means of the behavior indicators illustrate: verbal and nonverbal involvement in tasks, verbal and nonverbal non-involvement in task, verbal and nonverbal social interactions, child's language preference, the purpose of the language used, and with whom the verbal interactions took place.

The information gathered using the questionnaire provided data to identify the characteristics that parents of LEP students and administrators of bilingual programs in the selected school district perceived an effective bilingual teacher should possess. In addition, the information included the names of bilingual teachers who were nominated as effective teachers by the parents and administrators.

The characteristics identified by the parents included: tolerance, serve as a role model, manifest good control of the classroom, be familiar with the student, be well prepared, be punctual, implement changes, exhibit self confidence, and communicate effectively. The characteristics identified by the administrators consisted of: patience, understand the students' cultural differences, show knowledge of the material, implement new changes (methods), love the students, manifest creativity, behave professionally, demonstrate respect and enthusiasm, and be resourceful. The following chart illustrates the characteristics identified by the parents and administrators who participated in the study.

Chart I: Characteristics of effective teachers identified by parents and administrators

Parents	Administrators
Similar	
Be tolerant	Be patient
Be familiar with the student	Understand the cultural differences of the students Love the students
Be well prepared	Know the material
Implement changes	Implement new changes
Different	
Serve as a role model	Behave professionally
Manifest good control of the class	Be respectful
Be punctual	Be enthusiastic
Be self confident	Be creative
Demonstrate ability to communicate effectively	
Maintain good discipline in the classroom	

The data demonstrate that both groups identified a number of similar characteristics, such as: tolerance (patience), demonstrate familiarity with the students (understand the cultural differences of the students and love the students), be well prepared (know the material), and implement changes (new changes). There were six (6) characteristics that parents mentioned that were not stated by administrators, and five (5) characteristics stated by administrators but not mentioned by parents. In contrast, the teachers nominated by the parents were also nominated by the administrators, and vice versa. The chart on page 46 illustrates the teachers nominated by both groups, at least twice, as effective teachers of LEP students.

A total of thirty seven (37) teachers were nominated effective teachers of LEP students. The teachers nominated included both, monolingual and bilingual/ESL teachers. They represented K-12 grade teachers. Eleven (11) of them received at least two (2) or more nominations. Two (2) of the three (3) highest ranking teachers were selected for the study because they were bilingual early-childhood teachers of first and second grade LEP students.

Six (6) LEP students from the classrooms of teachers A and C were randomly selected for the study. Four (4) five minute observations during reading and math lessons were completed for each one of the children. Two (2) observations were completed during math and two (2) during reading lessons. A total of twenty four (24) observations were completed in the effective instruction classrooms. Eight (8) LEP students from the regular classrooms were observed during reading. Seven (7) students were observed four times during reading and one (1) subject was observed three (3) times during reading, for a total of thirty one (31) observations.

Chart II: Frequency of nominations

Teachers	Frequency of Nominations
*A	8
B	7
*C	6
D	5
E	4
F	4
G	3
H	3
I	2
J	2
K	2

*First and second grade bilingual teachers selected for this study.

Table I, on page 67 illustrates the results of the observations for all the subjects. It presents the percentages of instructional practices evident in both subject areas (reading and math) in both, the regular and the effective classrooms. It also illustrates the means for the behavior indicators exhibited by the children.

Table I indicates that: 1) the regular classrooms conducted small group activities (100%); 2) the effective classroom teachers conducted large (42%), small (33%), and individualized (25%) activities; 3) all types of activities (100%) were required (students had no choice); 4) native language was the dominant language of the effective classroom (85%), with L1 being used always (100%) during effective classroom reading; 5) L1 was also used more than the second (L2) language in the regular classrooms, but apparently the use of L2 (39%) plus the use of both L1 and L2 (32%) constituted much more use of the second language (L2) than the use of L1 only, 6) native language (L1) was the predominant cultural carrier in all the classrooms observed, with stories used a few times during reading in both, the effective and regular settings (7.7% and 4% respectively).

Table 1: Percentages of Instructional Practices and Means of Behavior Indicators

INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES				
	N=6 6(4) = 24 Observ.			N=8 7(4) + 1(3) =
	Effective -	LEPS - 1st/2nd Grades		Reguler-2nd/3rd
CONTENT AREA	MATH	READING	TOTAL	READING
	Percentages	Percentages	Percentages	Percentages
GROUPING				
SMALL	20	56	33	100
LARGE	60	11	42	0
INDIVIDUAL	20	33	25	0
CHOICE OF ALTERNATIVE				
REQUIRED	50	50	100	100
ACTIVITY				
TEACHER CENTER	50	50	100	77
STUDENT CENTER				23
LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION				
NATIVE	69	100	85	42
SECOND LANGUAGE	15	0	7.7	39
BOTH	15	0	7.7	32
CULTURAL CARRIERS				
NATIVE LANGUAGE	100	92	96	87
STORIES	0	7.7	4	0
AUDIOVISUALS	0	0	0	0
MANIP. TOYS	0	0	0	0
OTHERS	0	0	0	13
BEHAVIOR INDICATORS:				
INVOLVEMENT IN TASK				
NONVERBAL	Means	Means	Means	Means
EYE CONTACT	4.9	5.9	5.4	0.63
MANIP. MATERIAL	3.1	3.7	3.4	0.2
HEAD TOWARD	2.9	3.3	3.1	0.93
PHYS. GESTURES	8.6	4.6	6.6	1
FACIAL EXPRES.	1.2	1.4	1.3	0.75
OTHER	0	0	0	1.6
	20.57	18.80	19.74	3.50

INVOLVEMENT IN TASK	Effective Class			Regular Class
VERBAL				
COMMENT	0.9	1.7	0.8	0.71
ANSWER (ALONE)	1	2	1.5	0.84
ANSWER (GROUP)	1.6	3.7	2.7	0.48
ASK	0.08	0	0.04	0.39
	3.58	6.42	5.00	2.40
NON-INVOLVEMENT IN TASK				
NONVERBAL				
UNRELATED TASK	2.8	1.75	2.3	0.16
IGNORES MAT.	1.08	0.08	0.88	0.16
TOUCH/NOT INTER.	0	0	0	0.06
LEAVES TASK/RM.	1	0	0.08	0
OTHER	0	0	0	0.94
	4.08	2.42	3.25	1.30
NON-INVOLVEMENT IN TASK				
VERBAL				
TASK UNREL. COM.	0.5	0.17	0.33	0.16
TASK UNREL. ANS.	0	0	0	0
TASK UNREL. QUES.	0	0	0	0
TALK TO SELF	0	1	0.04	0.03
	0.56	0.17	0.25	0.19
SOCIAL INTERACTION				
VERBAL				
CHILD/PEER	1.08	0.58	0.8	0.29
CHILD/ADULT	2.92	6	4.46	0.94
CHILD INITIATED	1.17	0.75	0.96	0.58
PEER INITIATED	0.33	0	0.17	0.03
ADULT INITIATED	2.5	5.8	4.17	0.9
	8.00	3.17	10.58	2.74
NONVERBAL				
CHILD/PEER	1.58	2.58	2.08	0.03
CHILD/ADULT	3.92	3.08	3.5	0.23
CHILD INITIATED	2.25	3.25	2.75	0.03
PEER INITIATED	0	0.08	0.04	0
ADULT INITIATED	3.25	2.3	2.79	0.23
	11.00	11.33	11.67	0.52
CHILD'S LANGUAGE PREFERENCE				
LANGUAGE USED				
NATIVE LANGUAGE	3.67	6.58	5.13	0.65
SECOND LANGUAGE	0.33	0.08	0.21	0.61
BOTH	0	0	0	0.03
	4.08	6.67	5.30	1.30

PURPOSE NATIVE LANGUAGE				
	Effective Class			Regualr Class
COMMENT	0.92	0.58	0.75	0.45
ANSWER (ALONE)	0.8	2	1.42	0.42
ANSWER (GROUP)	1.58	3.75	2.7	0.39
ASK	0.08	0	0.04	0.13
TASK UNREL. COM.	0.33	0.167	0.25	0.06
TASK UNREL. ANS.	0	0	0	0
TASK UNREL. QUES.	0	0	0	0
TALK TO SELF	0	0.08	0	0.03
OTHER	0	0	0	0.03
PURPOSE SECOND LANGUAGE				
COMMENT	0	0.08	0.04	0.42
ANSWER (ALONE)	0.167	0	0.08	0.42
ANSWER (GROUP)	0	0	0	0.13
ASK	0	0	0	0.26
TASK UNREL. COM.	0.167	0	0.08	0.097
TASK UNREL. ANS.	0	0	0	0
TASK UNREL. QUES.	0	0	0	0
TALK TO SELF	0	0	0	0
OTHER				0
PURPOSE BOTH				
CODESWITCH	0	0	0	
TO WHOM NATIVE LANGUAGE				
PEER	0.92	0.58	0.75	0.03
ADULT	2.75	5.92	4.3	0.61
SELF	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.23
TO WHOM SECOND LANGUAGE				
PEER	0.167	0	0.08	0.23
ADULT	0.167	0.08	0.125	0.52
SELF	0	0	0	0.13

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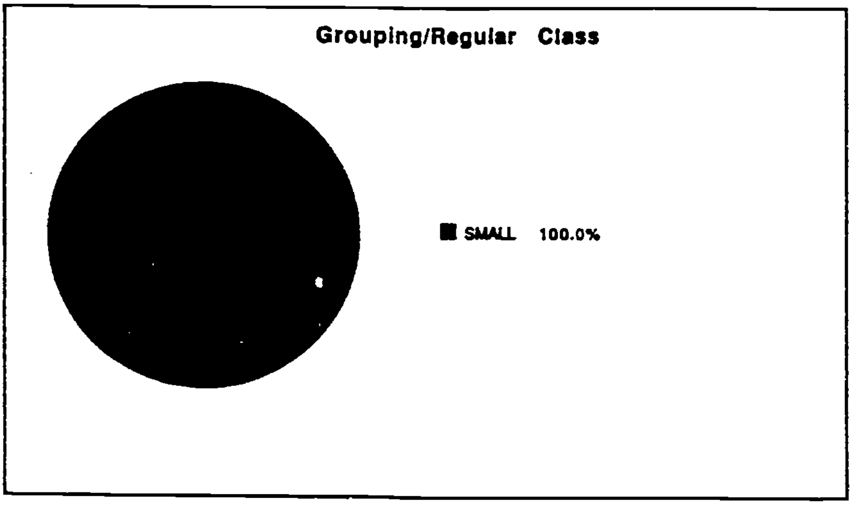
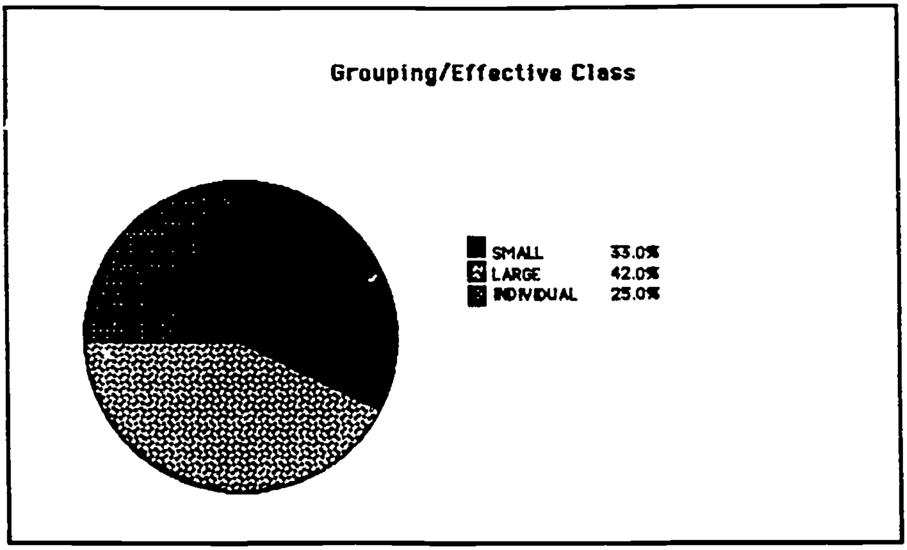
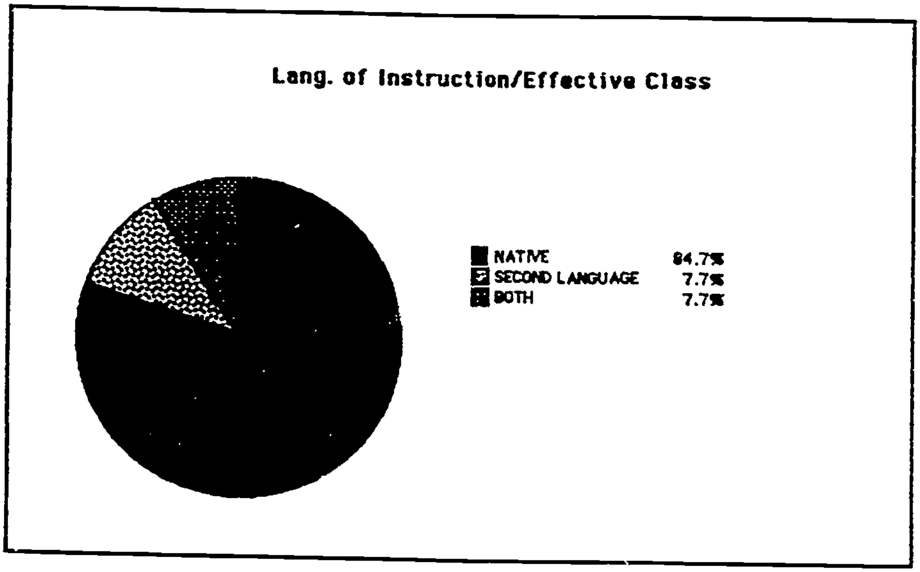
The following pie charts illustrate the percentages found in Table I for the individualized, small, and large group activities observed in both settings. In addition, the charts present the percentages of L1, L2 and L1/L2 use in the classrooms observed. The last set of pie charts present the use of L1, stories and other cultural carriers used during the observations.






Lang. of Instruction/Effective Class
NATIVE 84.7%
SECOND LANGUAGE 7.7%
BOTH 7.7%

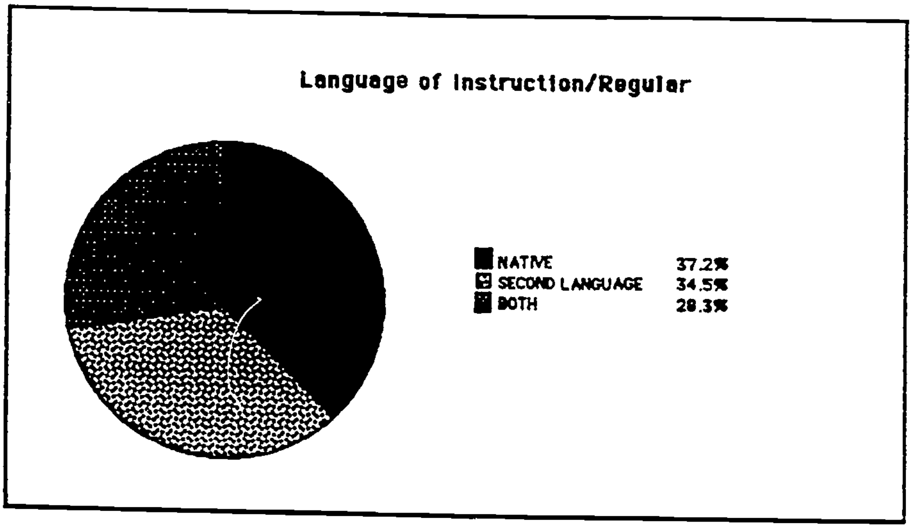

Language of Instruction/Regular
NATIVE 37.2%
SECOND LANGUAGE 34.5%
BOTH 28.3%

Table I includes the mean frequency of the behaviors observed for all the children in the particular settings (effective or regular). The total frequency for each behavior indicator was divided by the number of observations in each effective (24) and regular (31) classroom per subject area. The mean of the frequencies for the behavioral indicators for each subject area in both classrooms also appear in Table I.

Table I illustrates that: 1) the mean of the involvement in task/nonverbal indicators is much larger in the effective classroom (19.74) than in the regular settings (3.5), 2) children demonstrated more nonverbal involvement behavior through physical gestures in both types of classrooms (6.6, 1.0) than any other specific indicator, with eye contact in the effective classroom (5.4) and others (1.6) in regular classrooms ranking second, and 3) the mean of involvement in task verbal behavior was larger in the effective (5.0) than in the regular (2.4) classrooms, with more behaviors exhibited during reading (6.42) than math (3.58).

Table I also illustrates that: 1) less non-involvement in task behaviors than involvement behaviors were exhibited in both settings, 2) there were more non-involvement in task nonverbal behaviors (3.25, 1.3) than non-involvement in task verbal behaviors (.25, .19) in both settings, and 3) involvement and non-involvement behaviors in task exhibited were more nonverbal (19.74, 3.5; 3.25, 1.30) than verbal behaviors (5.0, 2.4; .25, .19) in both effective and regular settings respectively.

The table shows that: 1) there were more socially interactive behaviors exhibited nonverbally (11.67) than verbally (10.58) in the effective classroom, 2) there were less nonverbal socially interactive behaviors (.52) than verbal (2.74) behaviors in the regular classrooms, and 3) there were more social interactions both, verbal and nonverbal, in the effective classrooms (10.58, 11.67) than in the regular classrooms (2.74, .52). The predominant verbal social interaction in both settings was child to adult (4.46, .94), with most of the interactions initiated by an adult (4.17, .9). While more verbal social interactions took place in the effective settings (10.58) than in the regular classrooms (2.74), there were more verbal social interactions evident in math (8.00) than in reading (3.17) in the effective classrooms. Similar patterns were evident with the nonverbal social interactive behaviors. The predominant nonverbal socially interactive behaviors exhibited were child-adult (3.5, .23) and adult initiated (2.79, .23) even though the mean of child initiated interactions (2.75) was very similar to the mean in the adult initiated (2.79) behaviors in the effective classroom .

The language preferred by the students in both settings was the native language. All the students in both subject areas, math and reading, in all of the effective classrooms preferred the native language (3.67, 6.58) over the second language (.33, .08). In addition, the students used more L1 in reading (6.67), than math (4.98) in the effective classroom. In the regular classrooms, the students used almost as much L1 (.65) as they used L2 (.61); but they used language much less in the regular (1.3) than in the effective classrooms (5.3). Students mixed the languages a few times (.03) more in the regular classrooms than in the effective classrooms (0).

The purpose for using the first language (L1) in the effective classrooms was very similar in both content areas (math and reading). They used language to provide group answers (3.75, 1.58), for individual answers (.8, 2.0) and to a lesser extent to provide comments (.92, .58). In the regular classrooms the main purpose of L1 was to make comments (.45). They also answered individually (.42) and provided group answers (.39). The purpose for using L2 was to make comments (.42) and to provide group answers (.42).

The native language (L1) was used more to address adults (4.3, .61) than peers (.75, .03) or self (.08, .23) in the effective classrooms. In addition, L1 was used more during reading (5.92) than math (2.75) in the effective classrooms. In the regular classrooms, L1 was also used more with adults than with peers, but more to talk to oneself than to peers. The subjects used L2 less than L1 in both settings, but L2 was used more in the regular classrooms to address adults (.52) than to peers (.23) or oneself (.13). L2 was also used more to address adults (.125) than peers (.08) or oneself (0) in the effective classrooms

Discussion and Findings

1) What are the Characteristics that Parents and Administrators Perceive an Effective Teacher Must Possess?

The data illustrate that both parents and administrators stated that an effective bilingual teacher should be tolerant and patient, be familiar with the students and understand their cultural differences, be well prepared, know the material, and implement changes. Parents emphasized that teachers should serve as a role model, be punctual, manifest self confidence, exhibit control and maintain discipline in the classroom, and demonstrate ability to communicate effectively. Administrators added that an effective teacher should be professional, respectful, enthusiastic, resourceful, and creative.

There were a few effective school characteristics cited in the literature identified by both parents and administrators. These were: know the material, be able to implement changes, maintain control and discipline, and be creative. Only one characteristic has been associated with the "unique" effective instructional features cited in the literature, to understand the students' cultural differences. Neither the administrators nor the parents mentioned the use of the native language for instructional purposes, even though the parents stated that an effective teacher should be able to communicate effectively. Furthermore, neither the administrators nor the parents mentioned the teachers' ability to speak L1 or L2 or to teach English as a second language.

The list of characteristics identified by the parents and the administrators did not include additional "unique" bilingual instructional features such as the use of L1 and L2 to mediate instructions, the use of cultural carriers to transmit cultural information, the teacher's proficiency in English and L1, the use of culturally and developmentally appropriate materials and practices, use of instructional practices congruent with the language of the minority child, and affective factors other than "love for the children." In addition, the characteristics stated included only one of the developmentally appropriate instructional practices for young children cited in the literature: responsiveness to changes and new developments (García, 1991). Neither group addressed issues such as knowledge of developmentally appropriate curriculum and practices; age appropriate material, curriculum and practices; special interests and developmental progress of the children; the creation of an environment that encourages active exploration and interaction with others; student centered learning activities; communication opportunities; ability to relate to the parents and home; ability to assess the children's progress; appropriate teaching strategies; adequate guidance of social-emotional development; and motivation practices (Bredekamp, 1989). The information generated from the parents and administrators did not address the characteristics established in much of the effective school literature (Huitt & Segars, 1980; Johnston and Marble, 1986; Levine, 1991; Rosenshine, 1983, 1979; Sparks, 1984; Troisi, 1983; Tyler, 1981; Wilson, 1989; Worsham, 1981) either.

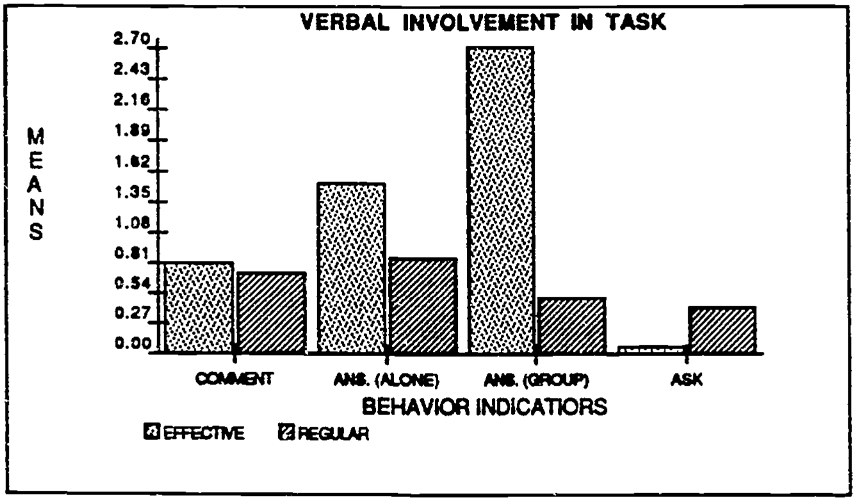
2) How Do Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors Vary When Comparing LEP Students Participating in the Nominated Effective Bilingual Classrooms with LEP Students in Regular Bilingual Classrooms?

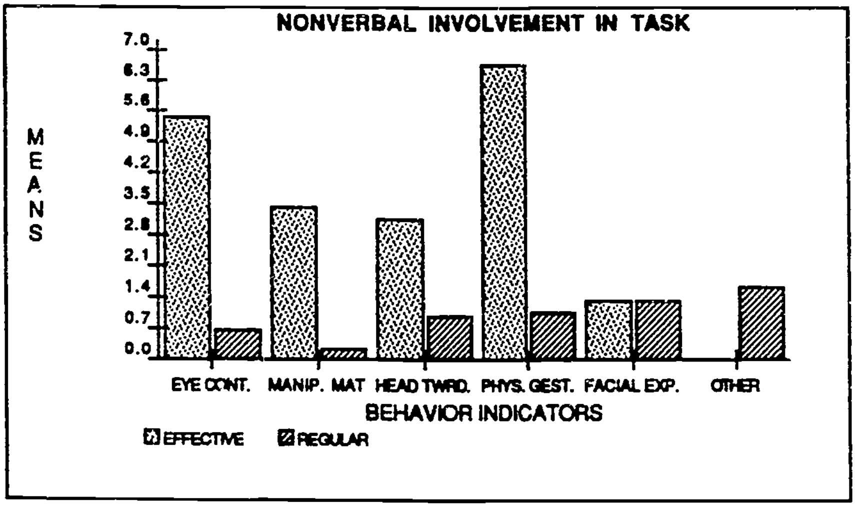
The data demonstrate that children exhibited more nonverbal involvement behaviors than verbal involvement behaviors in both settings, with about four times more nonverbal involvement behaviors in the effective classroom than the regular classrooms. Children also demonstrated twice as much verbal involvement behaviors in the effective classrooms than the regular classrooms. The following graphs illustrate the involvement behavior of the students in both settings effective and regular classrooms.

Graph 1 on page 75 shows that more involvement behaviors were evident in the effective than in the regular classrooms with answering, contact and physical gestures being the predominant involvement behaviors exhibited. Students exhibited very few behaviors associated with active learning such as playing with culturally and developmentally appropriate games, discussing a story, participating in group projects, challenging their peers, using a computer, drawing, dictating a story, participating in learning centers and manipulating learning materials such as blocks, cards, tools, arts and crafts, paint and clay, and scientific equipment.

Graph 2 on page 76 illustrates non-involvement behaviors. While there were more non-involvement behaviors in the effective than in the regular classrooms, there were also fewer non-involvement behaviors than involvement behaviors in both settings. The majority of the non-involvement behaviors in the effective classrooms were: making unrelated comments, talking to oneself, and participating in unrelated tasks. Comments were the predominant non-involvement behaviors demonstrated in the regular classrooms.

Graph 1: Involvement in Task





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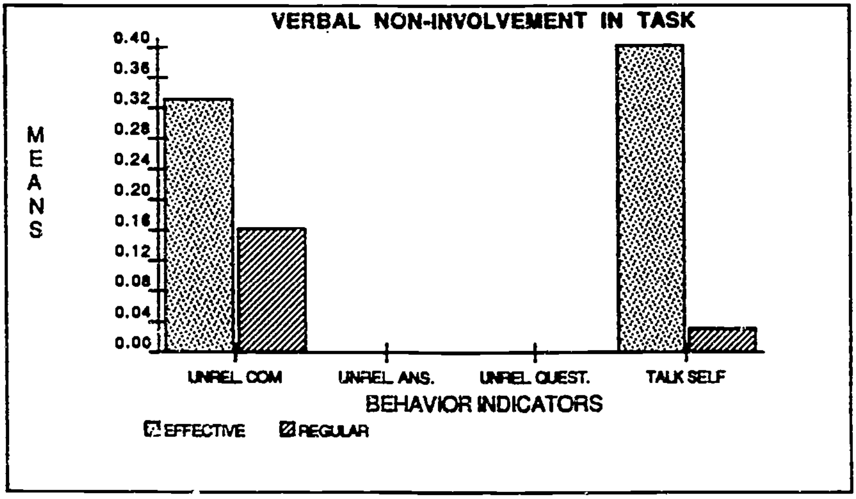
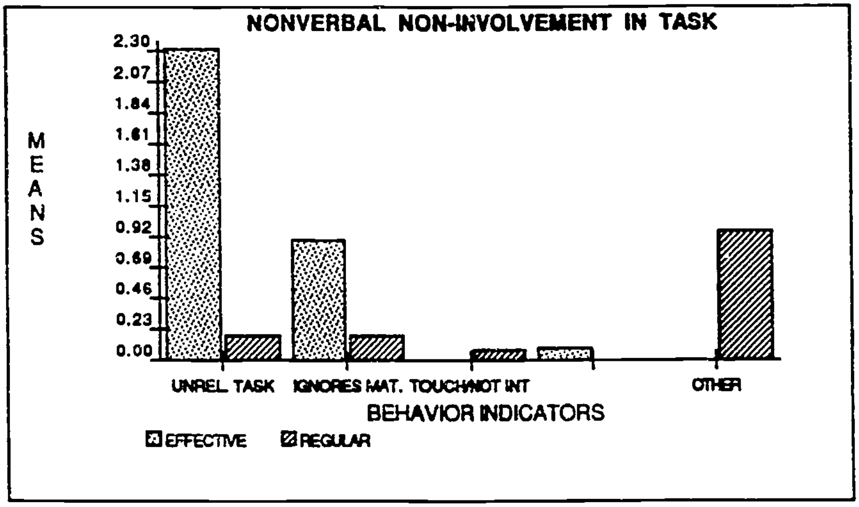
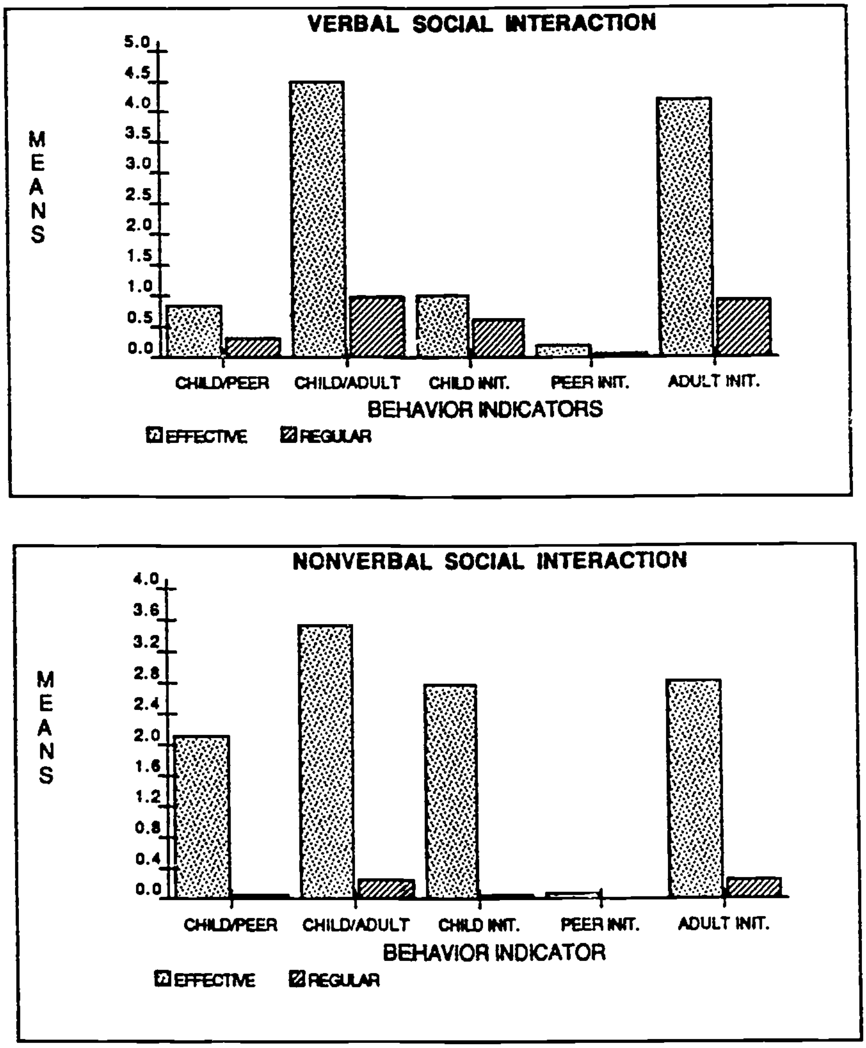
Graph 2: **Non-Involvement in Task**





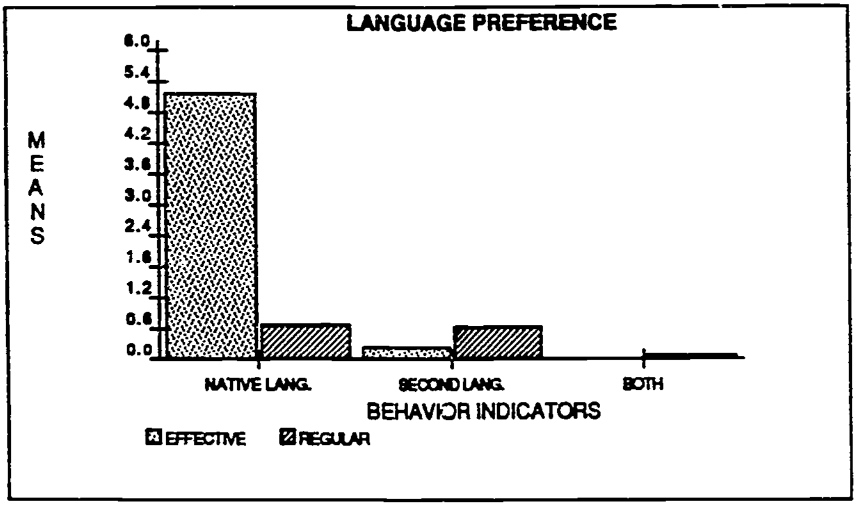
The behavior indicators of social interactions are illustrated in Graph 3. This graph illustrates that in the effective classrooms there were more social interaction behaviors, verbal and nonverbal, than in the the regular classrooms. The graph also shows that most of these social behaviors were interactions between children and adults, and that most were adult initiated. In addition, in the effective classrooms, there were about the same amount of child initiated and adult initiated nonverbal social interactions.

Graph 3: Social Interactions



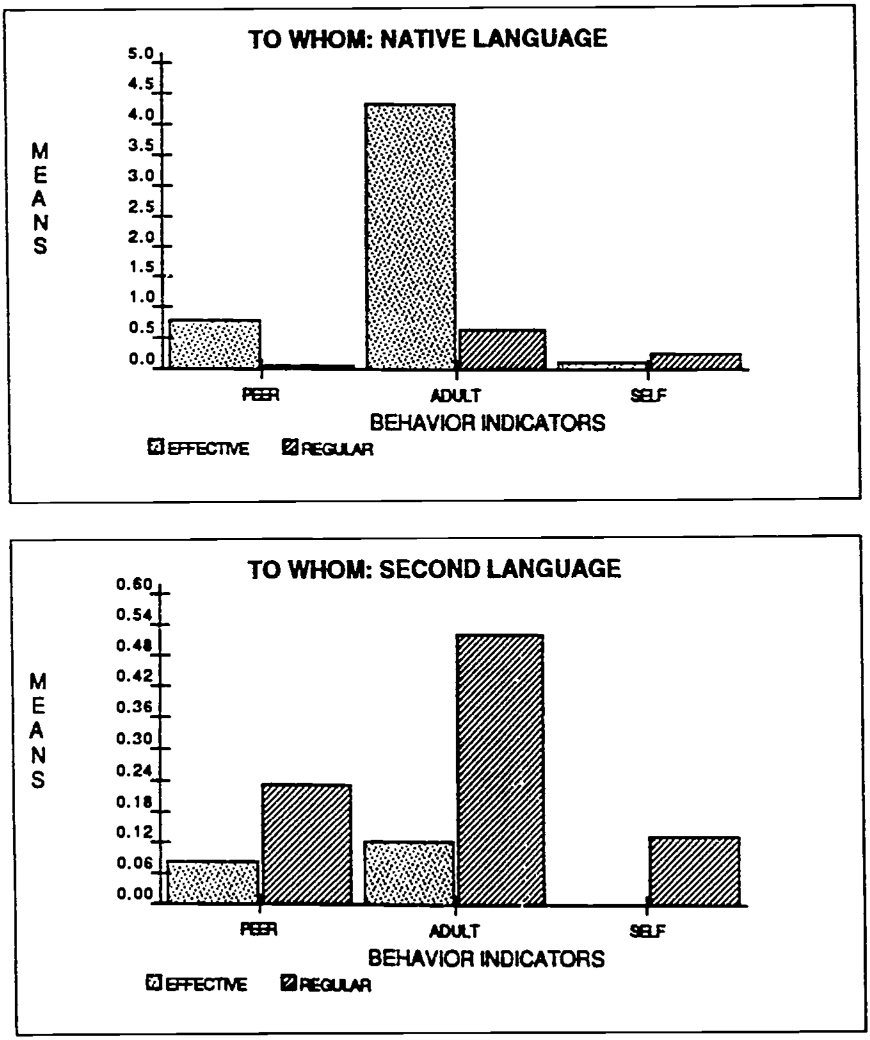
The language preference of the children is illustrated in Graph 4. In the effective classrooms, where L1 was used more frequently for instruction than L2, the children preferred to use L1. In the regular classrooms, where the teachers used L1, L2 and mixed both languages, the children demonstrated less verbal behaviors than in the effective classrooms, but also used more L1 than L2. Although there was limited mixing of L1 and L2 in the regular classrooms, there was no language mixing in the effective classrooms.

Graph 4: **Language Preference**



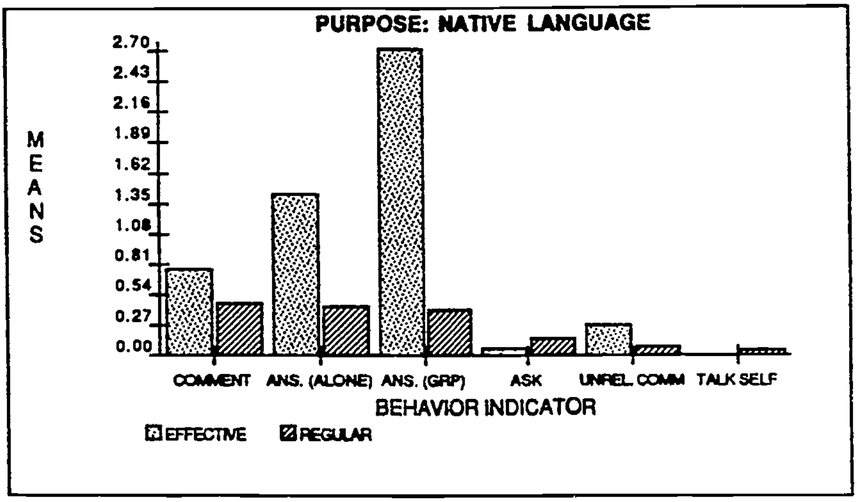
The study examined the verbal social interactive behaviors exhibited by the students. Graph 5 demonstrates that in both settings students interacted more with adults than with peers. Students in the effective classrooms used L1 more than L2 to interact with the adults and peers. In the regular classrooms, students used more L1 than L2 to interact, and the majority of the interactions were with adults. However, in the regular classrooms L2 was used more than L1 to interact with peers. It is possible that some of the peers were L2 dominant and the subjects tried to communicate with them in their dominant language. The subjects talked to themselves in the regular classrooms using L1 more than L2.

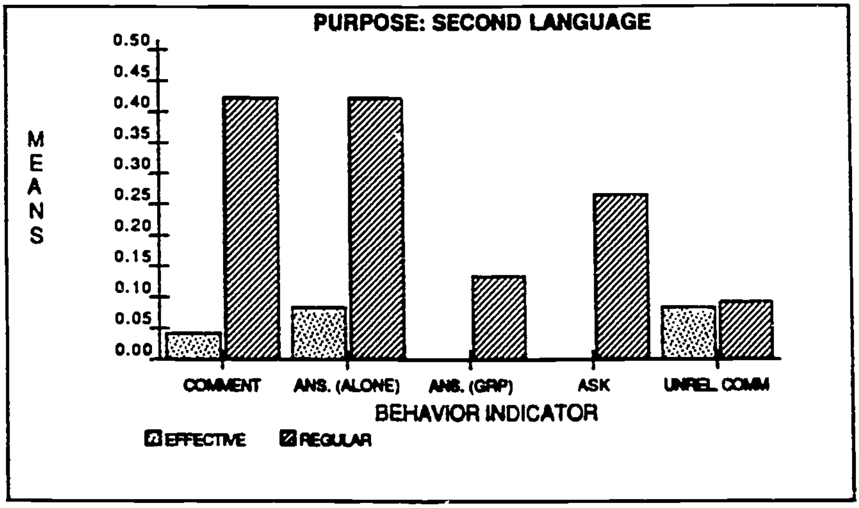
Graph 5: To Whom



Graph 6 shows the purposes for using the native and second languages. An analysis of the verbal behaviors exhibited demonstrates that: 1) more behaviors were exhibited in L1 than L2; 2) the majority of the L1 behaviors were exhibited for similar purposes in both types of classrooms (to comment, answer individually, provide group answers, ask questions, and make task unrelated comments) but in the regular setting L1 was also used to talk to oneself and for other purposes; 3) in contrast to the effective classrooms, in the regular classrooms students asked questions using L2, and made more unrelated comments, even though in the effective classrooms there was more use of native language (L1) than there was use of the second language (L2) in the regular classrooms.

Graph 6: Purpose





3) How Do Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviors Vary When Comparing LEP Students Participating in Effective Bilingual Classrooms with LEP Students in Regular Bilingual Classrooms in Two Subject Areas?

The involvement behavior of the students was similar in both subject areas. Students were more involved than non-involved, and they exhibited more nonverbal than verbal involvement behaviors. Students also demonstrated more nonverbal non-involvement behavior than verbal non-involvement behavior, but both types of non-involvement behaviors occurred twice as much during math as during reading. Math lessons were mostly conducted in large groups in the second language (L2).

There were more verbal social interactions during math than during reading, but about the same amount of nonverbal social interactions in the effective classrooms in both content areas. The language preferred by the children in both subject areas was the native language. During both, reading and math, the students answered questions rather than exhibit behaviors that demonstrated active learning. A few questions were asked during the effective classroom math lessons in the native language, and a few questions were also asked during reading in the regular classroom in the second language. The students used more L1 in reading than in math, but they addressed more adults than peers in both subject areas.

In summary, it can be stated that parents and administrators shared similar perceptions regarding the characteristics of effective bilingual teachers. However, both groups identified additional characteristics of effective bilingual teachers. It is significant to note that except for understanding the cultural differences of the students, neither the parents nor the administrators identified the characteristics of effective instructional practices mentioned in the research literature of effective bilingual instruction and appropriate early childhood instructional practices. Therefore, there seems to be a need to determine the extent that parents' and administrators' perceived characteristics of effective teachers relate to actual effective instructional practices. Future research must examine the relationship between perceived and actual effective instruction characteristics and their impact on young LEP students. Future research needs to investigate to the extent that the effective instructional characteristics cited in the literature of bilingual and early childhood education impact the academic performance and language acquisition of LEP students.

It can also be stated that LEP students in both of the selected effective and regular classrooms demonstrated similar behavioral patterns in relation to subject matter. However, their behavior were different in the selected effective from regular bilingual classrooms. Children exhibited more involvement behaviors in the effective bilingual than in the regular classrooms even though, the type of involvement behaviors demonstrated are not those frequently associated with active learning or successful bilingual or early childhood practices.

The behaviors exhibited also demonstrated that LEP children exhibited more socially interactions in the selected effective classrooms than in the regular classrooms. However, the children were not engaged in peer-to-peer verbal interactions to the extent that the literature establishes that this type of interaction is necessary to promote successful second language acquisition. In

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addition, a few of the social interactions represented efforts of the students to initiate learning. They were the result of adult initiated efforts.

The selected effective classrooms were characterized by the use of the native language, while the regular classrooms there was use of L1, L2 and a mix of L1 and L2. The regular classrooms did not demonstrate the use of L1 to develop literacy skills to the extent that the literature recommends. In addition, in the regular classrooms teachers did not separate the use of the two languages during a lesson frequently, nor did they demonstrate that the mixing of L1 and L2 had been carefully structured. Mixing of the two languages occured to a lesser extent in the effective classrooms' math lessons. Further research needs to examine the impact that language mixing has in the acquisition of language in relation to subject matter. There is also a need to determine to what extent effective bilingual classrooms implement developmentally appropriate practices, and their impact on the behaviors and language distribution patterns of LEP students.

Conclusions and Implications

The information gathered about the characteristics of an effective teacher does not emphasize the characteristics that the literature of both bilingual effective instruction and early childhood developmentally appropriate practices recommend. It is apparent that parents and administrators recognized the need for teachers to be aware of the cultural differences of the children. However, neither the parents nor the administrators mentioned the unique, effective instructional features cited in the research literature or the early childhood practices compiled by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (Bredekamp, 1989). Follow-up studies need to examine to what extent bilingual teachers, who are identified as effective early childhood teachers, follow the practices established by the literature in effective schools and early childhood. It is apparent that the parents' and administrators' list of characteristics of effective bilingual early childhood teachers represent aspects other than the appropriate instructional practices cited in the literature.

The study demonstrated that in both types of classrooms teachers conducted similar group activities during reading. The majority of the reading activities took place using small groups. However, the effective teachers used more large group instruction during math than small group instruction. Individualized instruction was also evident during the math lessons of the effective classrooms.

In contrast to the literature on young children which emphasize choices of activity, in this study children were not given an opportunity to select an activity of interest to them. In addition, contrary to the literature on effective schools and developmentally appropriate practices for young children, in this study most of the activities were teacher centered. Only the regular teachers provided some student centered activities. This study supports the literature's claim that bilingual classrooms continue to ignore the need to use cultural carriers other than the native language during instruction. Both settings did not demonstrate the use of carriers of cultural information such as culturally and developmentally appropriate games, curriculum, materials, toys, projects, and science equipment.

The data support the notion that effective classrooms use the native language to mediate instruction. The nominated effective classroom used L1 during reading and math, with some use of L2 during the math lessons. Regular classrooms used L1 and L2 during reading. However, in the regular classroom teachers also mixed L1 and L2 frequently, a practice recommended in the effective bilingual instruction literature only when it is carefully planned and structured.

The study supports the notion that children are more involved in effective than in regular classrooms. Students demonstrated more verbal and nonverbal involvement behaviors than non-involvement behaviors in both settings. However, there were many more involvement behaviors in the effective classrooms than in the regular classrooms. Furthermore, in contrast to the practices recommended in the effective instruction literature, children exhibited involvement behaviors for passive rather than active learning purposes. The students made comments and answered questions. Very few verbal behaviors that demonstrate active learning were exhibited, only the asking of questions. Children were not engaged in activities such as dictating a story, paraphrasing, clarifying concepts, challenging their peers, reading for their peers, scientific inquiry or problem solving. In addition, while the literature stresses the need to provide LEP students the opportunity to verbally interact with L2 native or near native peers, the children in neither the effective nor regular classrooms exhibited much child to peer interactions. The majority of the verbal interactions, irrespective of the preferred language, took place between children and adults, and were adult initiated interactions.

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CREATING CONDITIONS FOR POSITIVE CHANGE: CASE STUDIES IN AMERICAN INDIAN EDUCATION

T. L. McCarty

Abstract

Effecting lasting curricular and instructional reform in Native American schools requires change not only at the level of the classroom, but at the "macro" level of the larger social-political structure as well. This paper presents data from a one-year follow-up study of 25 Indian educators' implementation of cooperative learning and whole language strategies, and compares these findings to data from a long-term ethnographic study at Rough Rock, on the Navajo Reservation in northern Arizona. The comparative data reveal a complex array of "macro" and "micro" variables which alternatively enable or constrain pedagogical innovation and positive student outcomes. The implications of these findings for activating and sustaining positive educational change are discussed.

Introduction

In the fall of 1988, the Arizona Department of Education began a one-year follow-up study with 25 teachers, teacher aides and school administrators who had participated in an integrated staff development experience tailored to Native American schools.[1] The 25 educators represented four self-nominated Arizona school sites: Peach Springs, a K-8 school on the Hualapai Reservation with a nationally-recognized bilingual program (Watahomigie and Yamamoto, 1987); Sanders, a K-12 district adjacent to to the Navajo Reservation in northeastern Arizona; Rice, a K-8 public school on the San Carlos Apache Reservation; and

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[1] This study was sponsored by the Arizona Department of Education Indian Education Unit, with funds from the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation and Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO); and from the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) Short-Term Training Program. Dr. Margarita Calderón of the University of Texas, El Paso, served as the project's co-principal investigator. The author wishes to acknowledge the invaluable assistance of Dr. Calderón, and the support of the state education agency. Special thanks are due to Petraine Johnson of OBEMLA and Jon Quam of the CCSSO, and to the Indian educators who collaborated in the research: Verna Enos, Ann Francisco, Anna Gray, Daniel López, Elaine López, Ida Norris, Julee Tyler, Kevin Tyler and Yolanda Two Two of Sells Primary School; Pam Cochran, Elizabeth Hilliard, Thomas Nicas, Michael Reed, Barbara Tinhorn and Lucille J. Watahomigie of Peach Springs Elementary School; Janice Broadhead, Beverly Kinney, Fernando Machukay, Baxter Sneezy, Catherine Steele and Euella Thompson of Rice Elementary School; Margaret Ferrick, Randy Huntley, Doug McIntyre, Terri McIntyre, Karen Snow, Barbara Stanton and Jeff Williams of Sanders Unified School District; and Sally Begay, Galena Dick, Dan Estell, Juanita Estell, Lorinda Gray, Emma Lewis, Afton Sells, Evelyn Sells, Gloria Sells, Lorene Tohe and Rita Wagner of Rough Rock.

Sells Primary School, on the Tohono O'odham Reservation in southern Arizona (see Fig. 1 in the Addendum). Most of the 25 educators were Native Americans and bilingual in one of the four represented languages. All had participated for over a year in staff development sponsored by the state education agency, which focused on cooperative learning (e.g., Slavin, 1990; Jacob and Mattson, 1990), and the development of collegial coaching partnerships within and between school sites.[2]

Staff development included pre- and post-service activities tied to a four-week summer institute and to periodic on-site assistance by the project's principal investigators, Teresa McCarty and Margarita Calderón. Patterned after Calderón's highly successful Multidistrict Trainer-of-Trainers Institute (MTTI; see Calderón, 1982; 1986), these activities provided a foundation in bilingual education research, theory and practice, and the simultaneous opportunity to apply what Cummins (1989; 1991) describes as "empowerment pedagogies": communication-centered approaches emphasizing cooperative classroom structures, student inquiry and interactive, holistic language experiences. Following the inservices, educators returned to their schools to coach each other and colleagues, meeting periodically in study groups and with the principal investigators to discuss, critique and refine their own theories and use of new instructional approaches.

The follow-up study sought to identify the impacts of these instructional innovations on Native American students' school achievement, and the factors both within and external to local classrooms and schools that enable or constrain educators in activating and sustaining pedagogical change. The study's methodology was primarily naturalistic and ethnographic (e.g., Akasamit et al., 1990). Data collection included observational records and videotapes of classroom interaction, teachers' coaching logs, student writing samples, demographic site profiles, student achievement records maintained by the districts, and teachers' responses to questionnaires adapted from Calderon's (1982) *Innovations Configuration* (cf. Arizona Department of Education, 1988), and Hall and Rutherford's (1979) *Stages of Concern Questionnaire*. The educators themselves and their administrators collaborated in data collection and analysis.

This paper first reports preliminary findings from this follow-up research, and then compares this to findings from an ongoing ethnographic study at the Rough Rock Community School on the Navajo Reservation in northern Arizona (see Fig. 1; cf. McCarty, 1989; McCarty et al., 1991). While the follow-up study and the Rough Rock data document the benefits for Native American students of interactive, inquiry-based and cooperative learning-teaching strategies, research in each context also demonstrates the profound impact of school organizational and "macro" sociopolitical forces on educators' ability to implement positive pedagogical change (cf. Jacob and Jordan, 1987; Ogbu, 1987; Trueba et al., 1989; Hargreaves and Dawe, 1990). This paper argues that both "macro-" and "micro-" level analyses are essential to our understanding of what occurs and is feasible in Native American classrooms and schools. By extension, both levels of analysis are essential to understanding -- and transforming -- the historically disempowering experiences of Native American students in U.S. schools.

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[2] The aims of coaching went beyond technical mastery and the transfer of new skills and knowledge (e.g., Joyce and Showers, 1982), providing sustained opportunities for educators in the study to reflect on their teaching practice and on the organizational culture in which that practice was carried out. As a change strategy, coaching explicitly was not administratively imposed (cf. Hargreaves and Dawe, 1990). Instead, peer coaching became one aspect of a teacher-driven, educational-inquiry process designed to enhance mutual support and provide new forms of interaction between teachers, school administrators and teacher assistants.

The Follow-up Study

Data from the four study sites confirm, first, dramatic improvements in students' oral and written language development associated with the use of cooperative learning. Over the one-year study period, all 25 educators actively and regularly used cooperative strategies, including paired reading, cross-age and peer tutoring, group investigation and a number of strategies adapted by Calderón for bilingual students (Calderón, 1990; cf. Durán, 1990; Tinajero, 1990; Slavin, 1990). For example, at Sells Primary School, the bilingual first grade teacher paired high and low ability readers and writers to promote active involvement in literacy events by students with heterogeneous backgrounds in O'odham and English. This allowed students with greater proficiency in O'odham to tutor peers learning O'odham as a second language, and also enabled the latter to tutor their O'odham-dominant peers in English. Simultaneously, as part of a "Community Readers" project, parents and grandparents joined students in paired reading in the classroom. Within a year, the teacher reported that time spent on reading had increased by over 100 per cent.

At the same school another first grade teacher reported her involvement in the training and coaching partnerships. She explained: "the training finally gave me the courage to throw out the workbooks and get students involved in *real* reading and writing." This teacher, like those at Peach Springs, Rice and Sanders, grounded cooperative learning within student-generated theme studies. Themes became the connectors between disciplines and content areas, enabling students to explore new content using multiple literatures and research strategies, and most importantly, their own prior knowledge and experience. All of this created a natural context for collaboration within the classroom, and between students, teachers and community resource people outside the classroom as well (McCarty and Schaffer, in press).

At Valley High School in the Sanders District, the language arts teacher also utilized thematic units to integrate language development with content area study. Themes selected by her Navajo students included love, fear, fantasy, success, and a study of the local community. But the "most exciting" offshoot of her participation in the staff development project, she reported, involved combining her eleventh graders with a ninth grade class and with her fellow teacher, implementing a cross-grade "anti-tracking" project. Most rewarding in this effort, the eleventh grade teacher said, was the autonomy teachers and students had in "determining what and how they're going to learn."

These instructional innovations, especially the move away from basals and commercial texts, generated an explicit sense of community and shared vision at each school site. All 25 educators expressed the common opinion that while their efforts were new to their districts and in some cases viewed skeptically, they were comfortable with the risks involved because they had collegial support. That collegiality, moreover, was evident not only within school sites but between sites, as educators at one school cooperated with those at other sites to conduct district-wide inservices.

These changes are attributable in part to the opportunity for sustained reflection by educators on their teaching practice and on the nature of the learners and communities with whom they worked. The combined opportunities afforded through the state education agency, and those created by key administrators at each site, provided in one teacher's words, "a chance to share with others -- something I've never had before." The significance of such opportunities for positive change cannot be underestimated. The teacher who reported throwing out her students' workbooks, for instance, documented important changes in her students' classroom behavior and achievement: attendance improved, the quality and quantity of students' writing and verbal interaction increased, and one student "on the verge of dropping out" remained to begin a new school year.

When we look at each site, then, we see several interrelated *conditions* that to varying degrees facilitated educators' roles as change agents. First, each site had a strong, supportive administrator -- a building principal or assistant superintendent -- with long-term commitment to school change and improvement. These administrators adjusted schedules, represented the staff development program to higher-level administrators, created the time and modified staff evaluation procedures to facilitate educator partnerships and the "trying out" of new pedagogies. In short, they were advocates for their faculty, establishing risk-free school environments where critique, change, and experimentation were encouraged and indeed expected. These administrators also became knowledgeable experts on cooperative learning and peer coaching themselves, participating in staff development along with their teachers and aides and thereby enhancing their role as a source of support and expertise.

We also see at each site a core of primarily local personnel -- individuals with an investment in the community and in the school's success. We see, too, the presence of an external structure of financial and technical support from outside agencies and individuals, which provided funding, recognition and a relevant, nurturing context for professional development.

Finally, the participating educators brought immense personal and professional strengths to the project which contributed to their own success. All had been nominated by their schools as exemplary representatives of the district; they were selected for the statewide project based on a written application that was competitively ranked. These were highly capable, talented and motivated professionals. Together, their diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds created a new pool of knowledge from which all could learn and grow.

These combined conditions were essential to promoting educators' roles as agents of positive change. This becomes evident when any one of the conditions is removed. At one site, for example, a controversial and emotionally charged political upheaval resulted in the loss of several outstanding teachers and the assistant superintendent supporting their efforts, and in a school board-imposed shift back to conventional methods of instruction and "strict English phonics." On a larger scale, the termination of the state agency's grant supporting the project removed much of the infrastructure enabling educators within and between sites to maintain their collegial partnerships.

Causes for Conditions: A Comparative Example

Data from the four sites raise two important points. First, as has been observed for other student populations (e.g., Calderón, 1990; Durán, 1990; Goodman et al., 1991; Jacob and Mattson, 1990; Tinajero, 1990), cooperative learning in a whole language framework is an extremely promising instructional approach that enhances classroom interaction and the development of literacy and biliteracy among bilingual learners. Second, for these innovations to take root and demonstrate such impacts, educators require long-term, consistent administrative, collegial and financial support.

But in many American Indian communities, particularly reservation communities, such conditions are difficult to maintain. When they are not maintained, as the final case just described suggests, educational innovations can atrophy and even be radically reversed.

The case of Rough Rock, for which there exists similar but longer-term ethnographic data (McCarty, 1989; McCarty et al., 1991), is especially illuminating of the processes influencing these outcomes and instructional innovation in Indian schools. A small community in the center of the Navajo Reservation, Rough Rock resembles the follow-up study sites in its demographics and certain cultural features. Most of the district's 500 K-12 students are identified as having Navajo as their primary language. The Rough Rock school differs from the four study sites in that it is a federal grant school; Rock Rock was the first school to demonstrate the viability of local control by electing an all-Navajo governing board, but the board must annually negotiate its budget with the Bureau of Indian Affairs. In this reliance on federal funds, however, Rough Rock is not atypical, for lacking a local tax base, most reservation communities depend on federally-funded social service and educational programs to form the basis of their economies.

A major problem with this financial structure is its volatility; as federal education funds wax and wane, they alternatively generate and terminate academic programs and their associated pedagogies and staff. Teacher turnover at Rough Rock, for example, has in some years approached 99 per cent. Not surprisingly, Rough Rock students have not fared well in this context. Their academic performance, however, is less a function of any particular pedagogy than it is of the absence of a stable curriculum or pedagogy over time.

In this situation there are clear institutional and structural barriers to pedagogical reform. At one analytical level those barriers lie in the financial structure of reservation schools. At another level, the problems are a function of the sociohistorical relationship of Indian schools and communities to the larger society and in particular, to the federal government. Rooted in a legacy of colonialism, that relationship has institutionalized the dependence of reservation schools on a highly unstable financial structure -- in effect institutionalizing a system that undermines the quality of education available to Indian children, and impedes lasting pedagogical reform.

These "macro" variables and processes profoundly influence what is feasible at the "micro" level of the classroom. Change strategies, then, must address both levels. Without such multilevel change, pedagogical innovations such as cooperative learning and whole language cannot be sustained. In their absence, Indian students and their teachers are subject to the rote drill, phonics-based pedagogies that continue to characterize Indian education, and that perpetuate both academic failure and the disabling social structure underlying it.

Conditions Necessary for Change

To fully realize the benefits of cooperative learning and related "empowerment pedagogies," Indian educators must find in their schools and communities supportive structures and conditions receptive to positive change. Research at the four study sites, as well as recent developments at Rough Rock, suggest possibilities for nurturing those conditions.

One of the more lasting benefits of Rough Rock's many federal programs has been the training and certification of local teachers. Most of these individuals began their teaching careers as classroom aides, and they thus share a long history of experience at the school. As community members, they have a vested interest in remaining at Rough Rock. Today, these teachers constitute the core of the elementary school faculty.

Since 1983, these Navajo teachers and their aides, under the guidance of two gifted Navajo supervisors and a supportive non-Indian principal married into the community, have adapted a Navajo version of the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP), developed for Native Hawaiian students (Vogt et al., 1987). Like KEEP, the Navajo program emphasizes cooperative learning centers and collegial partnerships, but unlike the Hawaiian program the Rough Rock model includes bilingual instruction with the goal of developing biliteracy. Central to the Rough Rock program has been ongoing staff development and in the principal's words, "investing in people who are likely to stay." Thus, this program has begun to transform the *structure* of the situation by providing stability in both pedagogical approach and personnel.

While staff development efforts like the current one at Rough Rock, and those described earlier for the four study sites, can thus reduce the high teacher turnover that is a major cause of program instability and poor student outcomes, that alone is insufficient. For in most Indian schools, leadership still comes from the outside, leaders bring with them diverse philosophies often unrelated to local conditions, and their tenure is brief. The evidence from the case studies cited here suggests that if these conditions are to change, local educators must not only have the opportunity to implement cooperative, interactive, and student-centered pedagogies, they must also have the commitment and co-involvement of school administrators who are likely to stay with the program. This suggests that staff development programs within Indian schools and communities must build local, native educators' leadership skills, enabling them to move into the positions of instructional leadership historically held by outsiders.

As this occurs, we should expect significant improvements in the quality and stability of curriculum and instruction in Indian schools. We should also expect to see significant, positive changes in educational outcomes for Indian children.

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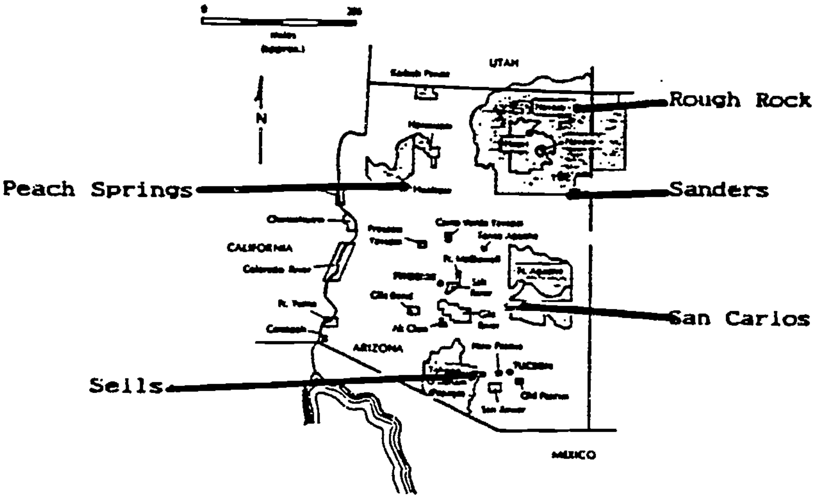
Addendum

Figure 1: Location of Case Study Sites*


N
UTAH
Rough Rock
Peach Springs
Sanders
CALIFORNIA
Colorado River
Ft. Yuma
Cocopah
Camp Verde Yavapai
Tonto Apache
Ft. McDowell
Salt River
Ft. Apache
Gila Bend
Ak Chin
Gila River
San Carlos
ARIZONA
TUCSON
Sells
Old Pascua
San Xavier
MEXICO

Compiled by T.L. McCarty. Drawn by Shearon Vaughn. Darkened areas indicate Arizona Indian reservations.

EXAMINING IDENTIFICATION AND INSTRUCTION PRACTICES FOR GIFTED AND TALENTED LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

Andrea B. Bermúdez
Steven J. Rakow

Abstract

Underrepresentation of minority students in gifted and talented (G/T) programs is a well established fact. some of the reasons provided by researchers include: (a) the presence of systematic bias in the standardization process as instruments and approaches follow a middle-class mainstream basis of measurement; (b) the pervasive lack of cultural knowledge and sensitivity on the part of teachers and appraisers due to inadequate training; and (c) the common practice of identifying G/T students on the basis of a single test administration. These conventions exclude culturally and linguistically diverse students, for only the acculturated minority student participates in the screening process past the initial step. Furthermore, inadequate testing environments and methodologies often alienate the examinee, making the information obtained from testing questionable.

In addition, the general lack of consensus regarding an adequate operational definition already discussed, in conjunction with teachers' unawareness of how cultural and linguistic factors affect student behavior, makes determining the most appropriate means of identifying and instructing the linguistically and culturally diverse gifted and talented students difficult to conceptualize. This predicament leads to a lack of adequate criteria to properly identify and instruct these students. The purpose of this paper is to examine and describe the status of identification, placement, and instructional procedures for G/T LEP students used in public schools from Texas, California, Colorado, Florida, Arizona, and New York. These states were chosen because of their high concentration of Hispanic students.

Underrepresentation of minority students in gifted and talented (G/T) programs is a well established fact (Office of Civil Rights, 1984; LaFontaine, 1987). Some of the reasons provided by researchers include: (a) the presence of systematic bias in the standardization process (Markheady, et al, 1983) as instruments and approaches follow a middle-class mainstream basis of measurement (Bruch, 1975; Bruch & Curry, 1978; Cohen, 1988); (b) the pervasive lack of cultural knowledge and sensitivity on the part of teachers and appraisers due to inadequate training (Torrance, 1971; Fradd, et al, 1988; Bermúdez & Rakow, 1990); and (c) the common practice of identifying G/T students on the basis of a single test administration (Renzulli, 1970; Sullivan, 1973; NCAS, 1988). These conventions exclude culturally and linguistically diverse students, for only the acculturated minority student participates in the screening process past the initial step (Bernal, 1981). Additionally, inadequate testing environments and methodologies often alienate the examinee, making the information obtained from testing questionable (Bernal, 1981; Melesky, 1985).

The definition for giftedness provided by PL 97-35 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (1981) offers a very generic framework:

> Children who give evidence of high performance capabilities in areas such as intellectual, creative, artistic, leadership, capacity, or specific academic fields, and who require services or activities not ordinarily provided in order to fully develop such capabilities.

Not all school systems interpret the above categories in the same fashion. Freedom in the interpretation of the definition does not ensure consideration and/or awareness of the unique characteristics and needs of culturally-different students (Bernal, 1974; Amodeo & Flores, 1981; Cohen, 1988). A commonly applied interpretation of the legal definition of a G/T student, for example, is one who "acts" or "behaves" gifted (Ebny & Smutny, 1990). However, these observations are based on mainstream middle class standards and value systems, as dialectal and cultural differences are not systematic components of the interpretation (Bruch, 1975; Cohen, 1988). One common approach to counteract this inherent bias, based on the belief that LEP students are less qualified than non-LEPs, is to lower the standards to give the G/T LEP student "a chance." This method results in the creation of a "second-order" gifted category (Bernal, 1981) which does considerable damage to the status of G/T LEP students placed in gifted programs.

Research has suggested several possibilities in establishing an adequate set of criteria to assess this type of student (Amodeo & Flores, 1981; Bernal, 1974; Cohen, 1988; Torrance, 1970; Witty, 1978). These recommendations include using non-standardized methods of assessment, for example: (a) self-reports, (b) observations of members from the same cultural group as the child's regarding giftedness, (c) teacher and parent observations of students solving problems in real-life situations, (d) parental interviews, (e) teacher and parent observation of student's ability to learn language and/or develop cultural skills, and (f) checklists developed with community and parental input. Researchers agree that using multiple source nominators (e.g., teachers, administrators, counselors, parents, peers, community members) provides more relevant data to properly identify the G/T LEP student (Frazier, 1989). A limitation associated with this identification strategy is the lack of parental and teacher training in the recognition of gifted traits in students (Gallegos & Flores, 1982; Nazzaro, 1981; Bermúdez & Rakow, 1990). In addition, the general lack of consensus regarding an adequate operational definition already discussed, in conjunction with teachers' unawareness of how cultural and linguistic factors affect student behavior, makes determining the most appropriate means of identifying and instructing the linguistically and culturally diverse gifted and talented students difficult to conceptualize (Bermudez & Rakow, 1990). This predicament leads to a lack of adequate criteria to properly identify and instruct these students. The purpose of this paper is to examine and describe the status of identification, placement, and instructional procedures for G/T LEP students used in public schools from Texas, California, Colorado, Florida, Arizona, and New York. These states were chosen because of their high concentration of Hispanic students.

Methodology

Procedures and Data sources

A survey has been mailed to 500 G/T coordinators from public school districts in the states cited above. The 268 respondents have provided the information presented in this study. These school districts represented are a cross section of these states' public schools with regard to size, funding, and location.

STATE	COUNT:	PERCENT:
Arizona	35	13
California	19	7
Colorado	63	24
Florida	36	13
Texas	103	39
New York	11	4

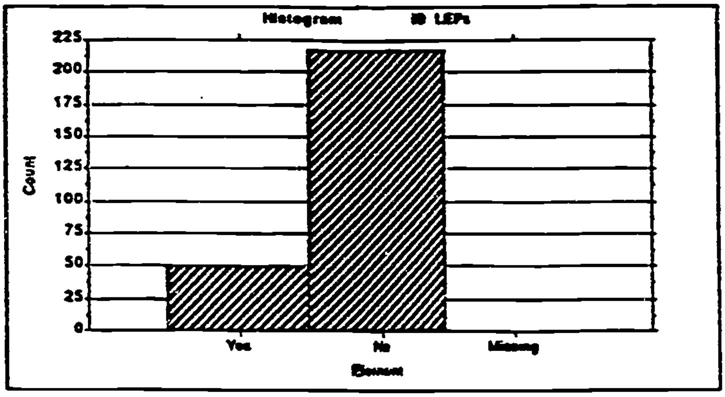
Results

A frequency distribution was calculated to examine and describe the status of identification and instruction of G/T LEP students. The generic items, questions 1 and 7, include all the respondents (N=268). Those items referring to assessment, questions 2-6, 8, and 11-12, include the respondents who indicated having developed identification processes for G/T LEPs (N=50). Questions 9 and 10, dealing with programmatic issues, contain only responses from those individuals who have developed specialized programs for G/T LEP students (N=23). The following responses to the questionnaire were obtained.

I. Identification Criteria

1. Are you serving any identified gifted students who have limited English proficiency (LEP)?

Only 18.7% of the respondents (50) indicated that they had developed a means to identify G/T LEPs. This finding is particularly disconcerting in light of the fact that the states targeted for this survey have a large proportion of Hispanic students who, as a result, are not receiving the required specialized services.



2. What are some characteristics of G/T LEP students that would be masked due to language and cultural differences?

The following student behaviors were reported by those respondents who have developed identification means for GT/LEP students:

- **Language (Verbal and Non-Verbal)**

- **Cognition**
  - √ **Curiosity**
  - √ **Problem-Solving Style**
  - √ **Prior Knowledge**
  - √ **Logic and Thinking**
  - √ **Attending to Task**
  - √ **Spatial Relationships**
  - √ **Speed in Learning**

- **Inter/Intra-Personal Skills**
  - √ **Sense of Humor**
  - √ **Different Survival Skills**
  - √ **Self-Esteem**
  - √ **Leadership Skills**
  - √ **Participation in Class Activities**
  - √ **Interaction with Teacher and Peers**
  - √ **Question-Asking Behavior**
  - √ **Discipline**

- **Academic and Artistic Skills**
  - √ **Creativity**
  - √ **Musical Skills**

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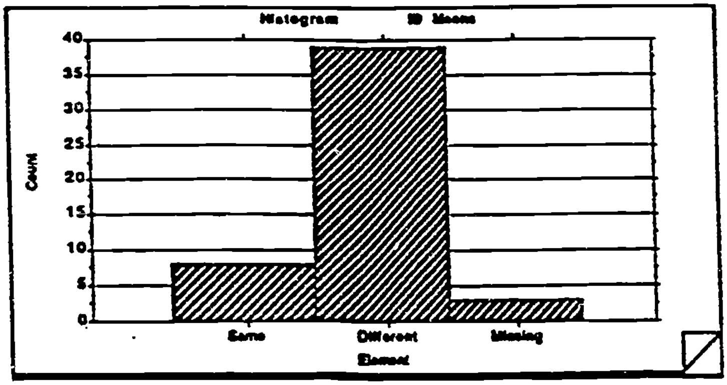
√ **Performance in Academics**
√ **Ability to Perform in Timed Testing Situations**

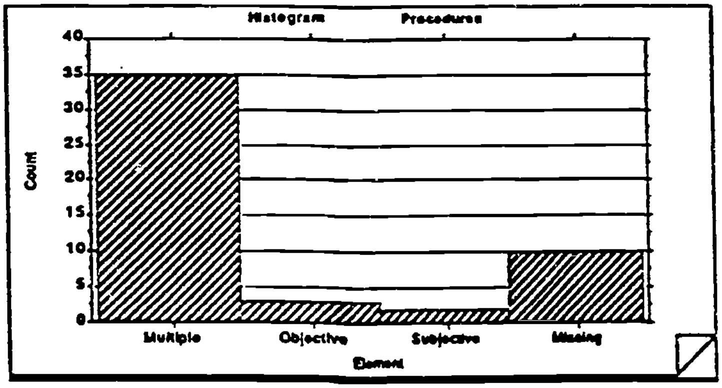
3. Gifted Students whose proficiency in English is limited (G/T LEP) can be identified in the same ways as any gifted student.

Seventy-eight percent acknowledged the need to use different means of assessment than those used for mainstream students (Witty, 1978).



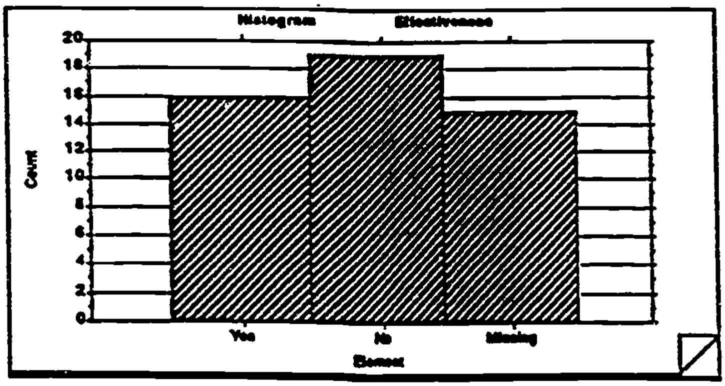
4. What criteria for identification of these students are you using?

Seventy-percent of schools responding reported the use of multiple sources in identifying G/T LEP students as recommended by the research literature (Bernal, 1974; Leung, 1981; Torrance, 1978). Exhibit I presents the sources used by these individuals in the process of nomination and screening.



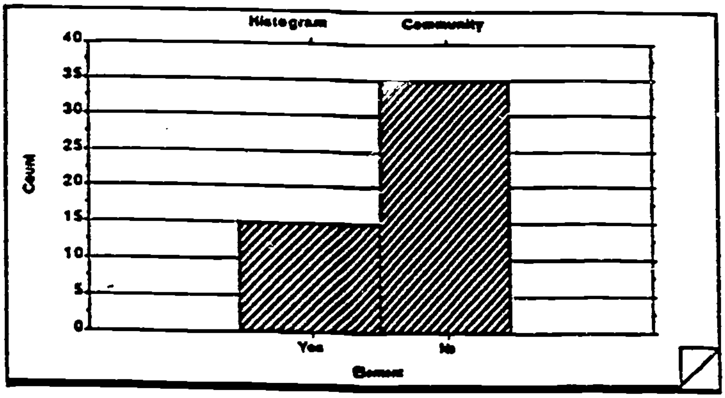
5. Are these methods satisfactory?

Thirty-two percent of the respondents found their identification process successful in dealing with the identification of GT/LEPs. Responses indicating lack of success or uncertainty ("Missing") about the effectiveness of these methods raise serious questions about current identification practices for these students.



6. Is the community involved in establishing criteria and characteristics of G/T LEPs?

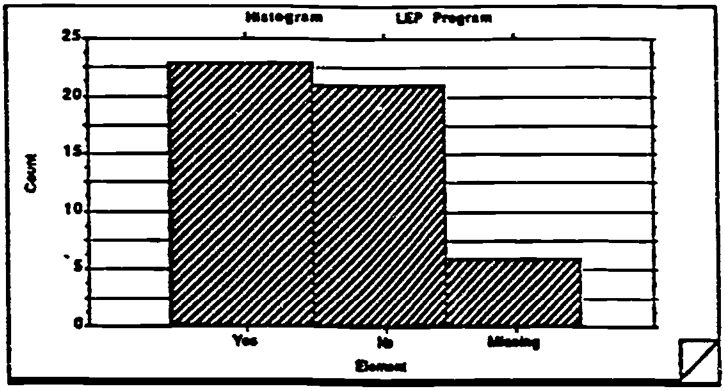
As noted earlier, community input in the process of identification is critical as the characteristics valued by the subculture should be taken into consideration (Leung, 1981). However, a majority (70%) of the respondents indicated that they had no community input in the process.



II. Instructional Program and Materials

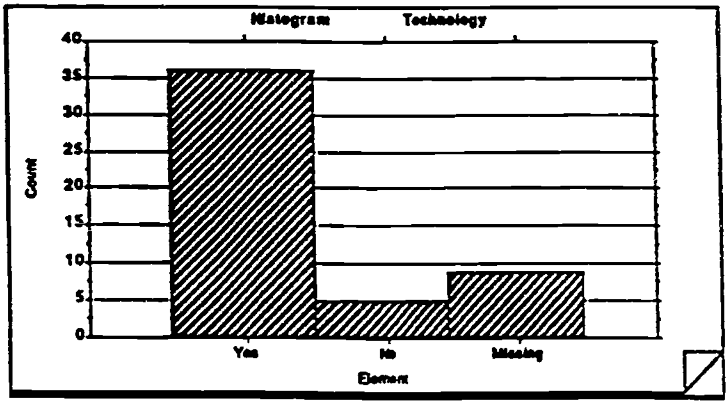
7. Our school district has a program used successfully with G/T LEPs.

Lack of specialized programs for the G/T LEP was evident, as only 8.6% (23) of the total respondents (268) had any type of program to serve these students. Missing data could be indicative of lack of programs, thus adding to the inadequacy of educational services for these students. Of the fifty programs which indicated having identification means in place, only 46% had a program for these students.



8. Do you consider instructional technology an important medium to stimulate G/T LEPs?

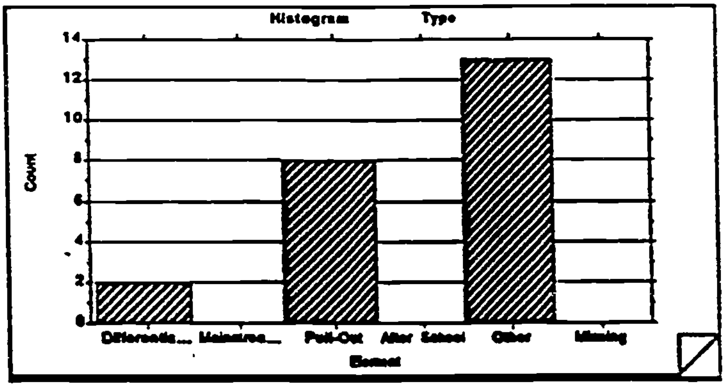
Although 72 % of the sample identifying GT/LEPs agreed that technology was important in the education of these students, there were no recommendations for effective software.



9. Do you use differentiated instructional materials with G/T LEPs?

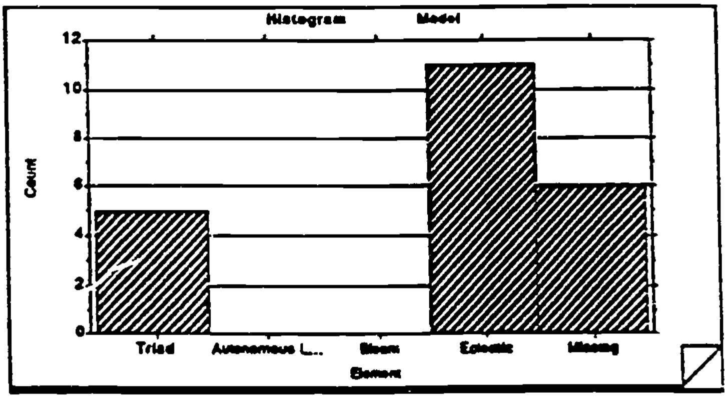
Research has identified effective materials which differentiate the content of instruction to accomodate the needs of G/T LEP students. These include: interdisciplinary mathematics, social studies and science (Valencia, 1985); visual and performing arts experiences (Niro & Wolf, 1982); focus on cultural values (Guinn, 1977); focus on careers (Stallings, 1976); focus on language development (Quisenberry, 1974); and multicultural emphasis on the curriculum

(Gallegos & Flores, 1982). Renzulli (1973) added the use of real-life problems and related action products in the classrooms serving these students. Only 8.7% of those respondents (2) indicating an established program for this type of student reported the use of differentiated materials. Thirty-four percent use pull-out formats and the majority (56.52%) do not adhere to any of the identified program typologies, including mainstreamed and after school settings.



10. Is your program based on any particular model of gifted education?

Seventy-eight percent of the established programs follow a theoretically founded model of gifted education. Of these 22.7% use Renzulli's TRIAD model and 50% a combination. There were 6 missing responses which could indicate schools' unawareness of theoretical and research foundations available for this area.



III. Parent Involvement

11. Are the parents of G/T LEPs in your school knowledgeable about the needs of these children?

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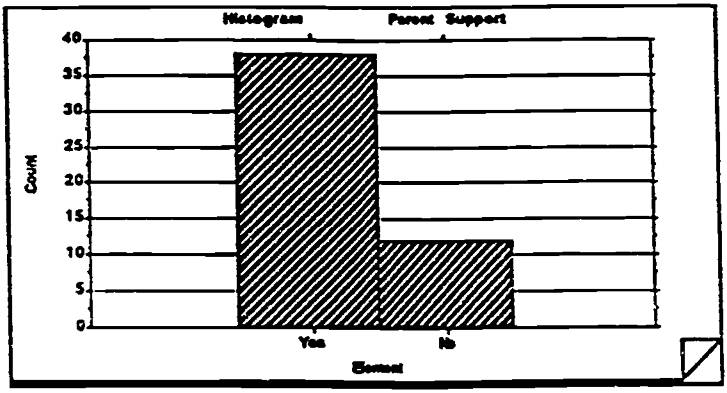
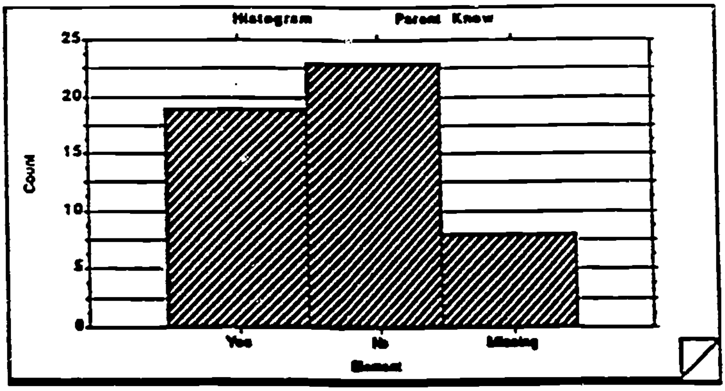
Parental involvement has been identified by Gallegos and Flores (1982) as a critical component in identifying G/T LEPs. Parent nominations have been cited as an effective alternative to standardized measures. However, only 38% of those individuals who acknowledged having identification processes in place reported that their parents were cognizant about their children's needs. The missing data further underscores the lack of awareness reported.



12. Are these parents supportive of school practices?

Having parents interested and supportive of school practices is an important step in developing awareness of their important role in the identification and instruction of G/T LEP students. Seventy-six percent of the schools reported that parental support had been realized.



Discussion

The survey data seems to indicate that there are very few programs identifying and/or instructing G/T LEP students in states with high Hispanic concentration. The majority of school district coordinators responding as having developed identification procedures for G/T LEPs are using multiple sources to nominate and screen these students (refer to Exhibit I). However, only one-third of the respondents indicated any success with these measures. One reason might be that a great percentage of these individuals are excluding the community input in the identification process for these youngsters. This aspect needs to be examined as cultural and linguistic characteristics are best understood by members of the same cultural enclave. These characteristics present a challenge in the development of unbiased criteria (refer to question #2 of the survey).

The findings also indicate that the few programs focusing on G/T LEP students do not seem to systematically follow any particular instructional model for gifted education nor have a standard research-based classroom format to instruct these students. Training teachers and other support staff in these areas is a critical component for effective instruction.

As reported by the G/T coordinators, parents seem to be generally supportive of school practices but not very knowledgeable about their children's needs. It is important to consider parental training to develop a school-home partnership to address identification and instruction from a more comprehensive perspective. Although this picture clearly portrays a general lack of systematization and consensus, some encouraging programs surfaced. A site visitation to the Gifted and Talented Program in the La Joya Independent School District was conducted by the two researchers as a follow-up to the survey. In an effort to disseminate information regarding successful attempts to assess and instruct GT LEPs, a profile of this program is provided.

LA JOYA, ISD: A Texas Program That Works

The Gifted and Talented Program, Creative Productive Thinking Dimension (CPT), of the La Joya Independent School District Instructional Program has recently been developed to "serve the special needs of identified GT students and provide opportunities for all students to participate in enriched and exceptional learning activities" (La Joya ISD, Program Summary 1989-1990, p.10). This school district, located in the Rio Grande Valley, has a student population that is 98.6% Hispanic. Although this school district has a disproportionally low tax-base resulting from a predominantly migrant community, funding for the program is an integral part of the district's total budget.

1. Identification Procedures

The identification procedures used are adapted from Renzulli's Revolving Door Model. Multiple diagnostic measures are used beginning as early as pre-kindergarten. These include: (a) standardized tests*, (b) parent questionnaires, (c) teacher rating scales, and (d) student's portfolio. Directions are administered in English and Spanish or through the use of pantomime. Identification involves the following steps: (a) student profile is compiled by a teacher using data from the various measures; (b) profiles are reviewed for each student selected by a committee composed of team teachers, campus supervisor, and campus CPT teacher; and (c) a parent profile is added to the data bank on each student. The committee continues to meet regularly to re-evaluate the pool of students who have been identified or who are potential candidates for the program. These processes are ongoing to allow for maximum participation in the CPT program.

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* The Language Assessment Scales (LAS) is used from Pre-K through the 6th grade. In addition, the following instruments are used to assess the creative/productive thinking skills of the students: (a) Thinking Creatively Through Action and Movement (Grades PreK, K) and (b) Raven Coloured Progressive Matrices and Creativity Assessment Packet (Grades 1-6).

2. Instruction/Curricular Materials

There are three levels to the CPT instructional model, following Renzulli's TRIAD: (a) essential learning level, (b) enriched learning level, and (c) exceptional learning level. Performance and motivation on the essential learning level, coupled with the information provided on the student data profile, allow students to advance to the next two levels. Curricular materials include Talents Unlimited, Open Court, and Tactics for Thinking.

The CPT program was developed in consultation of current research trends and it follows the philosophy and mission of La Joya Independent School District. A strong undercurrent of this philosophy is that all students are potentially gifted and should, therefore, be exposed to an enriched environment to ensure the realization of their giftedness. As a result, every student in the school is eligible for participation in the CPT program. Targeted exit behaviors include: (a) proficiency in two languages, (b) learner's increased self-esteem, (c) increased cognitive levels and critical thinking skills, (d) self-dependence, (e) concern for others, (f) technological expertise, and (g) improved physical and mental health.

In the CPT program, parents are actively involved in student identification, i.e. participating in the completion of parent questionnaires, and in classroom instruction as teacher aids. Over 500 parents volunteer in the school.

3. Training

Inservice workshops by field specialists on important issues related to identification and instruction of G/T LEP students take place on regular basis. Additional inservice by school G/T practitioners who meet with other school staff and parents is ongoing.

4. Evaluation

In order to evaluate the success of the program, the district has developed a three-pronged evaluation plan consisting of: (a) a campus management plan, (b) a district-wide management plan, and (c) an annual performance report. These various sources are reviewed periodically to assess the effectiveness of the program in student achievement.

5. Program Strengths

Overall strengths of the CPT program include: (a) interdisciplinary teaming (i.e., administrative, parental, teacher, and community support and commitment); (b) well trained personnel; (c) open lines of communication between the regular classroom teacher, the parents, and the G/T teacher; and (d) consistency of CPT program goals with the school district's philosophy and mission.

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Educational Implications of the Study

There are approximately 7.9 million school-aged youngsters whose home language is other than English (Waggoner, 1986). According to conservative estimates, 3% of a population is considered gifted (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, it should follow that 237,000 students have escaped identification as there is no official count available to support the contrary. While the number of school-age LEP students continues to grow, services to these students remain inadequate. Students who have been "identified" as LEP are generally subjected to inadequate assessment and placement practices which are responsible for continued overrepresentation in special education programs as well as underrepresentation in programs for the gifted and talented (LaFontaine, 1987).

Although a comprehensive school reform, including funding equalization, has recently taken place around the country, very little effort has been devoted to the identification of the various subpopulations included under the LEP umbrella. In some states, for example Texas, students identified as LEP cannot be considered for membership in other educational categories. Consequently, these students often receive non-academically oriented instruction. Labor market indicators predict an increase in scientific and computer-intensive jobs by the year 2000. Therefore, the need to intensify student participation in those fields, particularly the gifted and talented learner, has become more crucial. This is especially significant for LEP students who are disproportionally represented in science, mathematics, and technology careers (Rakow & Bermudez, 1988).

These facts, coupled with the escalating school dropout rates, particularly for Hispanic youth (U.S.Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1985), are clear indicators that schools have failed to adequately address the educational needs of these students. The gifted LEP youngsters have joined the ranks of the population at-risk of dropping out of school as, more often than not, they fall victims of unchallenging strategies and materials which do not entice them to stay in school. The devastating effects that undereducated subpopulations can have on the financial and cultural future of the nation have been clearly documented (Berlin, 1984; Caterall, 1985), notwithstanding the loss of productivity from gifted at-risk minority youngsters who fail to make maximum use of their talents. As a result, the need to develop a sensitivity to and knowledge about the needs and characteristics of these children is critical for school personnel, parents, and the community at large.

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EXHIBIT I: Identification Practices for GT LEP Students N=50

Nomination	Screening
Self (2)	1. Intellectual Abilities:
Peers	(a) Non-Verbal
Teachers (9)	Draw-A-Person
Parents	Cognitive Abilities Test
Raven* (5)	WISC-R (subtest)
Renzulli's Checklist	(b) Verbal
	Slosson
	Otis-Lennon
	WISC-R (subtest)
	Stanford Binet IV
	SOI Learning Abilities Test*
	SOI Gifted Screening Form*
	Matrix Analogies Test
	2. Standardized Achievement
	ITBS (2)
	CTBS
	CAT
	3. Creativity
	GIFT (2)
	Torrance* (4)
	William's Creativity Packet
	SAGES

*Recommended by the National Report on Identification of Gifted and Talented, USDOE, 1982.

MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE GIFTED AND TALENTED LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENT: THE UHCL PROTOTYPE

Andrea B. Bermúdez
Steven J. Rakow
Judith M. Márquez
Cheryl Sawyer
Cynthia Ryan

Abstract

The needs of gifted and talented limited English proficient (G/T LEP) students are being poorly met. There is a general lack of consensus regarding an adequate operational definition of giftedness. This lack of consensus, combined with little awareness by teachers of how cultural and linguistic factors affect student behavior, makes determining the most appropriate means for identifying, placing, and instructing the linguistically and culturally-diverse G/T student difficult to conceptualize (Bermúdez & Rakow, 1990). The confusion results in a lack of adequate methods to properly identify and instruct these students. The purpose of this paper is to present an overview of the process followed by the University of Houston-Clear Lake in developing a training prototype for teachers of G/T LEP students. This overview will: (a) examine the status of research in the areas of identification, characteristics, and instructional procedures for G/T LEP students; (b) present the results of a survey dealing with common practices in assessment and instruction of G/T LEPs in Texas, Florida, California, Colorado, and Arizona; (c) discuss the results of a survey describing characteristics of G/T Hispanic LEPs, as perceived by the community; (d) describe the results of a modified Delphi study to establish national consensus concerning the instructional objectives of an exemplary program for the education of G/T LEPs; and (e) describe a set of modules and coursework developed for the training of teachers of G/T LEPs.

Research Review

Research concerning the identification and curricular needs of G/T LEP students is limited and tends to focus on criticisms of current identification procedures. Often Hispanic students are left out of the identification process because the initial screening step consists of a standardized test (Bernal, 1981). The problems of test bias for second language populations are well-established (Bruch, 1975; Bernal, 1981; Melesky, 1985) as are the issues of test language and cultural bias. Students who may not be "test-wise" are further handicapped by the alien conditions of testing.

Several recommendations for improving identification procedures to provide greater access to language-minority students have been put forward. These include the use of non-standardized, more subjective methods such as nomination by peers, family members and friends (Bernal, 1974; Leung, 1981; Torrance, 1978), the use of characteristics which are valued by the subculture (Leung, 1981), and the involvement of parents in all stages of the selection process (Gallegos & Flores, 1982).

Many language-minority children have special talents that are valued within their cultures but which may not be recognized because they are masked by culturally and linguistically diverse behaviors (Bermúdez & Rakow, 1990; Cohen, 1988). Since individual cultures tend to stress certain intellectual abilities and talents more than others, giftedness can best be described within the context of a particular culture (Bernal, 1976; Leung,1981). It is important, therefore, to look at how the individual ethnic enclaves view giftedness in order to establish relevant identification criteria for culturally and linguistically diverse G/T students.

The use of more appropriate test instruments, particularly home language instruments (Melesky, 1985), and non-verbal testing procedures (Melesky, 1985; Bernal, 1974) are also strongly recommended. Researchers have also suggested the utilization of non-traditional identification procedures to broaden the pool of identified G/T students. Matrices which take into account characteristics such as socioeconomic status, home language and school mobility as well as multiple criteria such as portfolios and autobiographies have been encouraged (Witty, 1978). These non-traditional procedures may require a broadening of the traditional definition of giftedness to shift the focus from language skills in English to an emphasis on other areas of giftedness such as creativity and leadership potential.

The need for modifications in the identification procedure is supported by differences in characteristics demonstrated by second language learners. These characteristics include; (a) different problem-solving strategies, e.g., deductive versus inductive approaches (Bermúdez, 1986); (b) ways of expressing creativity, e.g., expressiveness of feelings, emotions, gestures and speech (Torrance, 1970); and (c) individual learning styles (Dunn, Beaudry & Klavas, 1989).

Materials also must be adapted to meet the needs of students from different cultures. It is important that the materials take into account the students' cultural background, help to expand the students' career awareness, provide for active participation, not stereotype the student into particular career paths, and begin with the interests and experiences of the student (Passow, 1986).

Thus, research would suggest that providing appropriate experiences for LEP students requires first a reconceptualization of the procedures currently being used to identify these children as well as modifications in the curriculum and materials being used. Once this is accomplished, the needs of second language learners can better be met.

Survey on Identification and Instructional Practices

A combined multiple-choice and open-ended survey, examining the status of identification, placement, and instructional procedures for G/T LEP students, was designed and mailed to 500 G/T coordinators from public school districts in Texas, California, Arizona, Colorado, and Florida. The target sample represented a cross-section of these states' public schools with regard to size, funding, and location. There were 268 respondents who provided the information presented in this segment of the summary. The following responses to the questionnaire were obtained.

1. Only 18.7% of the respondents (50) indicated that they had developed a means to identify G/T LEPs. This finding is particularly disconcerting in light of the fact that the states targeted for this survey have a large proportion of Hispanic students who, as a result, are not receiving the required specialized services.

2. Respondents identified GT LEP students' verbal and non-verbal behaviors that can be masked due to language and cultural differences. These include language, cognition (e.g., problem-solving style and prior knowledge), social, and intra/interpersonal skills (e.g., sense of humor, self-esteem, and leadership skills), and academic and artistic skills (e.g., achievement and creativity).

3. Seventy-eight percent acknowledged the need to use different means of assessment than those used for mainstream students (Witty, 1978).

4. Seventy percent of the 50 schools reporting that they had identification means for LEP students in place indicated the use of multiple sources in identifying G/T LEP students as recommended by the research literature (Bernal, 1974; Leung, 1981; Torrance, 1978).

5. Thirty-two percent of the respondents found their identification process successful in dealing with the identification of GT/LEPs. Responses indicating lack of success or uncertainty ("Missing") about the effectiveness of these methods raise serious questions about current identification practices for these students.

6. As noted earlier, community input in the process of identification is critical as the characteristics valued by the subculture should be taken into consideration (Leung, 1981). However, a majority (70%) of the respondents indicated that they had no community input in the process.

7. Lack of specialized programs for the G/T LEP was evident, as only 8.6% (23) of the total respondents (268) had any type of program to serve these students. Missing data could be indicative of lack of programs, thus adding to the inadequacy of educational services for these students. Of the fifty programs which indicated they had identification means in place, only 46% had a program for these students.

8. Although 72% of the sample identifying GT/LEPs agreed that technology was important in the education of these students, there were no recommendations for effective software.

9. Research has identified effective materials which differentiate the content of instruction to accomodate the needs of G/T LEP students. These include: interdisciplinary mathematics, social studies and science (Valencia, 1985); visual and performing arts experiences (Niro & Wolf, 1982); focus on cultural values (Guinn, 1977); focus on careers (Stallings, 1976); focus on language development (Quisenberry, 1974); and multicultural emphasis on the curriculum

(Guinn, 1977); focus on careers (Stallings, 1976); focus on language development (Quisenberry, 1974); and multicultural emphasis on the curriculum (Gallegos & Flores, 1982). Renzulli (1973) added the use of real-life problems and related action products in the classrooms serving these students. Only 8.7% of those respondents (2) which indicated an established program for this type of student reported the use of differentiated materials. Thirty-four percent use pull-out formats and the majority (56.52%) do not adhere to any of the identified program typologies, including mainstreamed and after school settings.

10. Seventy-eight percent of the established programs follow a theoretically founded model of gifted education. Of these 22.7% use Renzulli's TRIAD model and 50% a combination. There were 6 missing responses which could indicate schools' unawareness of theoretical and research foundations available for this area.

11. Parental involvement has been identified by Gallegos and Flores (1982) as a critical component in identifying G/T LEPs. Parent nominations have been cited as an effective alternative to standardized measures. However, only 38% of those individuals who acknowledged having identification processes in place reported that their parents were cognizant of their children's needs. The missing data further underscores the lack of awareness reported.

12. Having parents interested and supportive of school practices is an important step in developing awareness of their important role in the identification and instruction of G/T LEP students. Seventy-six percent of the schools reported that parental support had been realized.

The survey data seem to indicate that there are very few programs which are successful in identifying and/or instructing G/T LEP students in states with high Hispanic populations. The majority of school districts which have developed identification procedures for G/T LEPs are using multiple sources to nominate and screen these students. However, only one-third of the respondents indicated any success with these measures. One reason might be that a great percentage of these individuals have excluded the community input in the identification process for these youngsters. This aspect needs to be examined as cultural and linguistic characteristics are best understood by members of the same cultural enclave. These characteristics present a challenge in the development of unbiased criteria.

The findings also indicate that the few programs which focus on G/T LEP students do not systematically follow any particular instructional model for gifted education nor do they have a standard research-based classroom format to instruct these students. Training teachers and other support staff in these areas is a critical component for effective instruction.

As reported by the G/T coordinators, parents seem to be generally supportive of school practices but not very knowledgeable about their children's needs. It is important to consider parental training to develop a school-home partnership to address identification and instruction from a more comprehensive perspective.

Community Perceptions of the Characteristics of the Gifted and Talented Limited English Proficient Child

A survey to assess the community's perceptions of characteristics of gifted and talented Hispanic students was administered to a sample of eighty-five Hispanics. The sample consisted of 24 males and 61 females, ranging in age from 18 to over 65. The largest category represented (35.3%) was between the ages of 26 and 35 years.

The attitudinal survey is a 45-point inventory based on relevant issues related to the identification of minority G/T students found in the existing research literature. Survey participants were asked to identify behaviors and characteristics that they associate with giftedness in the Hispanic population using a five-point, Likert-type scale to indicate their opinions or perceptions toward the stated issues.

A factor analysis was used to determine how the items clustered as well as their relative strength. Six significant factors were identified in the study and were titled according to the construct represented.

Factor 1 (**Classroom Behaviors**) includes not only achievement but other possible indicators of giftedness such as student interests, self-confidence, classroom communication skills, social interaction, and attitudes towards school. These indicators present teachers with the opportunity to assess children beyond the traditional single score framework.

Factor 2 (**Creativity**) includes an appreciation for problem-solving situations, as well as artistic, musical, and bilingual talents. This factor suggests the possibility that the learner is a doer rather than a passive recipient of learning.

Factor 3 (**Originality**) addresses the student's ability to listen, to tell stories and jokes, to be interested in a variety of things, to see multiple solutions to problems, to see various uses for things, and to feel generally independent from established routines.

Factor 4 (**Inquisitiveness**) focuses on the learner's ability and/or desire to observe, be creative, be curious, be motivated to learn, read, and ask questions.

Factor 5 (**Communicative Skills**) underscores the learner's sense of humor, interpersonal skills, and writing and oral expression.

Factor 6 (**Non-Academic Skills**) includes artistic, athletic, and leadership qualities.

The factors identified follow the categories addressed in the definition of giftedness as stated by the federal government in the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (PL 97-35) :

> [Gifted children are] Children who give evidence of high performance capabilities in areas such as intellectual, creative, artistic, leadership capacity, or specific academic fields, and who require services or activities not ordinarily provided by the school in order to fully develop such capabilities.

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However, the Hispanic community surveyed did not perceive all of these factors to be equally important in assessing giftedness in a Hispanic youngster. The characteristics which proved to be pivotal for the participants in the study are not those which are included in standardized measures. They are characteristics which fall in the categories of creative and productive thinking.

A descriptive analysis of the items in the survey revealed ten indicators of giftedness which should be taken into account in assessing the potential giftedness of Hispanic students. The descriptors indicate that a Hispanic gifted child: (1) finds many solutions to a problem; (2) likes to try new things; (3) is good at finding other uses for things; (4) is interested in a variety of things; (5) is observant; (6) is creative; (7) is curious; (8) likes to read; (9) is motivated to learn; (10) asks questions. These ten descriptors are the basis of an emerging profile of the G/T Hispanic student as reported by the community. The expansion of the survey's database can lead to the development of a student profile to be used as the basis for relevant criteria for the identification, placement, and instruction of G/T Hispanic students.

Defining A National Consensus of Goals: A Delphi Study

This paper has previously documented that there is a dearth of programs which meet the needs of G/T LEP students. A set of five three-hour training modules is being developed by the the University of Houston-Clear Lake with support from the United States Department of Education to educate teachers about sensitive issues concerning the needs and characteristics of gifted and talented students with limited English proficiency. These training prototypes should prepare the classroom teacher for those adaptations necessary to meet the needs of these students. However, there is no established national agenda for criteria on which to base such a prototype. In order to define excellence in programs for gifted and talented students with limited English proficiency, a study is being conducted at the present time. The research design selected was the Delphi Technique which allows anonymous debate over the topic. A set of questions (see below) was prepared for evaluation and distributed to a selected panel of experts who were practitioners in the field of gifted and talented students with limited English proficiency. These experts were encouraged to envision their concept of an ideal program designed to meet the needs of gifted and talented students with limited English proficiency and to review, evaluate and prioritize the collated responses. The final result reflects a consensus of these practitioners. This consensus definition of major areas dealing with identification, instruction, and counseling of GT LEP students will help serve as an organizing framework for the teacher training prototype. Given this purpose, this survey attempted to answer the following research questions:

- How will we identify and assess those students who will be included in this program?

- What curricular and instructional components should be included in this program?

- What counseling issues should be addressed for these students?

- How can creativity be encouraged?

The experts felt that although formal (objective) and informal (subjective) identification information should be gathered, emphasis should be placed on recognizing those cultural and linguistic diversity factors which may influence the student's ability to be identifiable as gifted and talented. Identification procedures should be inclusive rather than exclusive in order to accommodate this diversity.

The assessment process should encourage and permit students to demonstrate superior capabilities through avenues selected by and for them. Students can also provide input on the selection criteria and participate in the evaluation process. They should not, however, be excluded from a program due to inadequate training in formal test-taking skills. Emphasis should focus on the recognition of unique abilities rather than inabilities possessed by these students.

Multicultural issues should be recognized and integrated into the basic curriculum for all students. This curriculum should be enhanced for the gifted students through broad based themes which utilize varied learning strategies within the mainstream setting. Family members should be educated in ways to encourage the development of student potential through critical thinking activities within the home.

Counseling, an essential element of any gifted and talented program, must be offered to students with limited English proficiency in order to assist them in dealing with issues which are unique to their cultural adjustment. Other critical components of an exemplary counseling program include assisting all students to develop a respect for cultural differences. Also, parent liaisons can assist in reducing barriers between the home and the school.

The development of creativity in the gifted and talented student can be enhanced through teaching the concepts and skills involved in increasing creativity, modeling critical thinking and diversity by the teachers, and permitting the student to take those risks innate in the creative process. The integration of cultural values with the creative process would encourage the student to freely express abilities which otherwise may be restricted. Parent participation could also serve as an aid and a stimulus to further the development of creativity both within and outside of the school setting.

Three major factors, multicultural awareness, flexibility, and parental involvement, consistently emerged throughout the entire evaluative process. These issues should receive serious consideration in the development of a program for gifted and talented students with limited English proficiency. In order to develop a national consensus concerning the objectives and strategies for teaching G/T LEP students, a group of leading gifted educators was asked to conceptualize an exemplary program for G/T LEP students including identification and assessment, curriculum, materials and instruction, teachers, and counseling.

Teacher Training Modules and Curriculum

Twelve credit hours will be required by the Texas Education Agency (TEA) to satisfy the requirements for a G/T endorsement. These competencies will be examined course syllabi. The four courses developed were presented for approval to the various university committees, to the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, and to the TEA for approval. Suggestions from these various entities were included in the program coursework. Exhibit I summarizes the UHCL curriculum, objectives, course descriptions and prerequisites.

In addition, a set of five three-hour training modules, as mentioned earlier, is being developed and implemented at the present time. Each module focuses on one of the following five topics as it relates to G/T LEP students: (a) nature and needs; (b) identification and assessment; (c) curricular materials and methods; (d) counseling; and (e) creativity. The modules contain background information for the presenter and participants, activities to introduce and develop the topic of study, overhead transparency masters, an outline of the workshop presentation, and a short videotape illustrating the topic with G/T LEP students (refer to Exhibit II: Sample Contents).

These modules can be used in several ways by teacher trainers. Each module is designed to be infused into university level coursework as a three-hour presentation addressing issues unique to G/T LEP students. The presentations are followed by activities which encourage the participants to analyze or apply concepts learned during the presentations. The five modules may also be presented as individual workshops or as a series of staff development workshops intended to sensitize teachers and other school personnel about the five target areas discussed in the previous paragraph.

Summary

While the total number of public school students decreases across the nation, the number of Hispanics continues to escalate. It has been estimated that by the year 2000, schools will see an increase of 35% in the Hispanic student population (Oxford-Carpenter, Pol, López, Stupp, Gendell & Peng, 1984). In addition, there are approximately 7.9 million school-aged youngsters whose home language is other than English (Waggoner, 1986). In spite of the fact that the number of school-age limited English proficient students continues to grow, services to these students remain inadequate. Students who have been classified as LEP are generally subjected to inadequate assessment and placement practices which are responsible for continued underrepresentation in programs for the gifted and talented (LaFontaine, 1987). Conservative estimates claim that 3% of the school population in the United States is gifted (Cohen, 1988). However, underrepresentation of minorities in specialized programs shows the schools' lack of ability to identify these students adequately (Bermúdez & Rakow, in press; Bernal & Reyna, 1974; Frasier, 1979; Gay, 1978; Machado,1987).

Existing biases and lack of awareness regarding the needs and characteristics of these students have hindered the process of determining the most appropriate identification, placement, and instruction procedures and has led to identification procedures which only spotlight those youngsters who most apparently fit the norm used by the schools.

These facts, coupled with the escalating school dropout rates, particularly for Hispanic youth (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1985), are clear indicators that schools have failed to adequately address the educational needs of these students. The gifted LEP youngsters have joined the ranks of the population at-risk of dropping out of school as, more often than not, they fall

These facts, coupled with the escalating school dropout rates, particularly for Hispanic youth (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1985), are clear indicators that schools have failed to adequately address the educational needs of these students. The gifted LEP youngsters have joined the ranks of the population at-risk of dropping out of school as, more often than not, they fall victims of unchallenging strategies and materials which do not entice them to stay in school. The devastating effects that undereducated subpopulations can have on the financial and cultural future of the nation have been clearly documented (Berlin, 1984; Caterall, 1985). These effects could be compounded by the loss of productivity from gifted at-risk minority youngsters who fail to make maximum use of their talents. As a result, the need to develop a sensitivity to and knowledge about the needs and characteristics of these children is critical for school personnel, parents, and the community at large.

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EXHIBIT I

University of Houston-Clear Lake
Gifted and Talented Endorsement Program

DIAG 5237 Gifted Children and Young Adults

Course Description:

This course is designed for individuals who are responsible for the education of gifted children and youth in a coordinating, teaching, or parenting capacity. The course is focused on the gifted learner. Topics for study will involve all areas of giftedness and will include: 1) the basic concepts of giftedness and intelligence; 2) characteristics, behaviors, needs and implications of giftedness; 3) identification research and procedures; 4) characteristics, needs, and identification of special populations; 5) characteristics and implications for the teacher and parent; 6) a brief overview of curriculum and staff development, community involvement and evaluation.

Objectives:

Students will demonstrate an understanding of the following objectives in their study of the gifted/talented through written, visual, kinesthetic, and/or verbal products. The course will examine giftedness in all areas, including: intellectual, academic talent, psychosocial, leadership, creativity, and psychomotor. Students will:

1. Demonstrate a basic understanding of the concepts of giftedness, will understand the definitions related to those concepts, and will understand the areas of giftedness recognized by the definitions.

2. Demonstrate an understanding of the theories of intelligence expressed by Guilford, Sternberg, and Gardner and an understanding of the differential brain development of gifted individuals.

3. Demonstrate an understanding of the characteristics, behaviors, needs and implications of students within all areas of the definition of giftedness. Students will research the life of a highly gifted individual and role play that individual in a "Meeting of Minds" demonstrating an understanding of the characteristics, needs, and implications of giftedness as they were/are exhibited in that individual.

4. Develop screening and identification procedures used to identify such students for all areas of giftedness and apply research evaluating such identification procedures. Document appropriate ways of student placement in and exit from programs.

5. Demonstrate an understanding of the characteristics, needs, implications and identification procedures of teaching students in special populations; such as gifted girls, preschoolers, culturally different, limited English proficient students, the impaired, the underachiever.

6. Describe a rationale (reasons, principles, beliefs, practices) for providing programs for gifted children.

7. Demonstrate a basic understanding of the ways to develop and/or modify learning experiences for identified gifted/talented students so as to meet their specific and general learning needs through 1) curricular elements of content, process, product; 2) instructional strategies and learning styles; 3) instructional materials; and 4) learning environments. Describe how selected activities meet the needs of the cognitive, social, emotional, and creative characteristics found in gifted children.

8. Demonstrate a very basic understanding of an overview of ways to plan staff development programs and community involvement programs supportive of the gifted and an understanding of the evaluation techniques used to make program decisions.

9. Demonstrate a basic understanding of the role of the parent and family in helping to fulfill the needs of the gifted child; parenting strategies for the gifted; working with parents as school personnel.

10. Demonstrate an understanding of the developmental aspect of the gifted child especially through preschool.

DIAG 5238 **Curriculum Development for the Gifted**

Course Description:

This course is designed for individuals who are responsible for 1) developing or modifying learning experiences for the gifted/talented students at the elementary or secondary school level, 2) implementing differentiated learning experiences within the regular classroom or through a special grouping arrangement, and/or 3) creating/selecting instructional materials to support the implementation of differentiated learning experiences. The course will balance theoretical and practical concerns for the development for the gifted, creative, and talented.

Curricular modifications in content, process, product, and learning environments based on the characteristics of gifted children and young adults will be a course focus.

Prerequisite:

DIAG 5237, **Gifted Children and Young Adults**, will be a prerequisite of the course because students will need great familiarity with the characteristics, needs and implications for gifted learners before creating original curriculum. Under special cases of previous experience teaching the gifted, and demonstrated competence by the student, instructor permission may be granted.

Objectives:

In their study of curriculum methods for gifted/talented students, participants will, through written, visual, kinesthetic, and/or verbal products:

1. Be able to apply a basic understanding and rationale of the concept of "differentiation" as it has been explained in the research and as it is applied in the classroom.

2. Be able to apply a basic understanding of ways to respond appropriately to the general and specific needs of gifted/talented students in various learning environments.

3. Demonstrate competencies in the ability to plan, develop, analyze, and evaluate curriculum designs as they relate to the characteristics and needs of the gifted.

4. Develop differentiated lessons and curricula to implement in a field experience using specific teaching strategies and models discussed in class. Be able to create new programs or modify existing programs or teaching strategies.

5. Present a workshop or inservice activity to our graduate class on the results and implications of the curriculum developed for the field experience.

6. Be able to assess commercially available instructional materials for the gifted.

7. Demonstrate a basic understanding of instructional strategies and materials (including questioning and responding techniques and activities) used to develop critical, analytical, creative and affective potentials of gifted/talented students.

8. Demonstrate a basic understanding of differences in gifted student special populations; ie, limited English proficient, bilingual, and culturally different, as well as underachiever, the impaired and gifted girls.

9. Help students set measurable goals and use them for self-assessment.

10. Become a facilitator and resource person for students by enhancing students' specific intellectual abilities and making them producers of information rather than merely consumers.

11. Demonstrate an awareness of the differences in learning and teaching styles and the interaction of styles in the classroom.

12. Be able to apply an understanding of various curriculum and program models used to differentiate for gifted students to the graduate student's own school district.

13. Demonstrate an awareness of alternative ways to provide for age-peer, ability peer, mentor, community-based and independent study learning environments as well as ways to manage program options.

14. Be able to apply evaluation techniques and models used to collect both formative and summative data on curricular decision.

DIAG 5931 Creativity and Productivity

Course Description:

This course is designed for any individual who is responsible for 1) identifying creative potential within others, 2) planning and implementing learning experiences for nurturing creative thinking, 3) selecting or developing materials for enhancing creativity, 4) providing learning environments conducive to creativity, or 5) interested in his or her own creative growth.

Objectives:

Students will demonstrate competencies through written, visual, kinesthetic, and/or verbal products. Students will:
1. Demonstrate an in-depth understanding of selected definitions of and explanations for creativity. Definitions may include: Bruch's Creative Characteristics, Torrance's research, Williams's Model, Hermann's brain theories, the divergent component of Guilford's SOI Model, Gardner's work on multiple intelligence, Dabrowski's overexcitability theory as it applies to creativity, and Arietti's work.

2. Demonstrate an understanding of the creative characteristics, their resultant behaviors, needs and implications in a case study of a highly creative student.

3. Demonstrate an understanding of the creative characteristics as they may be manifested in students in special populations, including the limited English proficient, the culturally different, the impaired, the underachiever and the gifted girl.

4. Compare alternative methods for identifying creative potential and develop an identification procedure that may be used for identifying creative potential, using standardized and non-standardized instruments.

5. Evaluate commercially available instructional materials and student creativity competitions and be able to develop original materials for enhancing creativity.

6. Create a model of an environment used to nurture creative thinking.

7. Apply research and models relating creativity to the education of the gifted and talented in his/her own setting/classroom. Be able to apply creativity strategies to the content areas in products such as a lesson plan.

8. Apply research and methodology of creative problem solving to solving an individual and/or group problem.

9. Conduct a self evaluation relevant to research on creativity and develop a plan for growth personally and professionally, especially in the area of facilitating creativity in gifted students.

10. Increase personal capacities, to include: a consciousness of the vital importance of creativity in every day life as well as in the professions, the sciences, etc.; heightened sensitivity to problems around them; open-mindedness toward the ideas of others; improved abilities associated with creativity, especially the ability to produce quality ideas and original ideas for the solution of problems.

11. Demonstrate an ability to use and apply creativity strategies in a small group. Strategies might include: brainstorming; relaxation and visualization aids; numerous idea stimulation techniques such as forced relationships, morphological approaches, SCAMPER; convergent decision making facilitators and so on.

12. Determine the possible applications of R & D work on productivity in business and industry to the education of the creatively gifted.

DIAG 5931/COUN 5931 **Counseling the Gifted**

Course Description:

This course is designed for counselors, parents, and teachers of the gifted. Topics for study will include: 1) social and emotional needs of the gifted; 2) strategies and techniques for counseling the gifted; 3) problems experienced by the gifted (e.g., motivation, adjustment, and underachievement); 4) developmental guidance and counseling programs; and 5) parenting skills for gifted children.

Prerequisite:

DIAG 5237, **Gifted Children and Young Adults**, will be a prerequisite for this course.

Objectives:

1. Identify the social and emotional needs common to the gifted.

2. Describe the nature of problems of motivation and adjustment faced by the gifted and identify the conditions under which such problems are most likely to develop.

3. Define underachievement and identify its causes.

4. Illustrate several methods for working effectively with underachievers.

5. Demonstrate strategies and techniques for working with gifted students experiencing problems in the classroom, peer group, or at home.

6. Develop a program for counseling gifted students.

7. Discuss the issue of suicide among the gifted. Cite its prevalence, causes, and possible prevention/intervention measures.

8. Describe unique problems faced by culturally different or disadvantaged gifted children and adults.

9. Summarize research on child-rearing practices and family backgrounds among parents of gifted and talented individuals.

10. Describe several ways parents can support gifted and talented children to achieve their potential.

11. Explain ways parents, counselors, and teachers can work together to promote the development of gifted and talented students.

12. Evaluate resources--material and human--available to meet the guidance and counseling needs of the gifted.

Exhibit II: Sample Contents

Nature and Needs of Culturally Diverse Gifted and Talented Students

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SOME CONNECTIONS BETWEEN BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND ESL PROGRAMS

Luisa Durán

Abstract

A question often asked by both the Bilingual Education (BE) and the English As A Second Language (ESL) teachers is: What are the differences and what are the similarities or connections between ESL and Bilingual Education programs? This paper attempts to clarify the strong relationship which exists between these two seemingly different dual language programs. A review of the literature yielded very little by way of purposely relating these two types of programs. Also, because it is impossible to discuss the differences between any particular ESL and any particular BE program, this paper aims at a very general conceptual analysis only of some differences and similarities between the two. While their early beginnings are markedly different, their later development show them converging in very important ways.

"Some people erroneously assume that there is a distinct difference between second language instruction and bilingual instruction. Second language instruction, however, is an integrated part of any dual language model" (Lessow-Hurley, 1990).

Early Difference and Later Convergence

Bilingual Education Programs have been seen as a more radical educational reform movement than English as a second language programs, and have therefore had a more turbulent history than programs in ESL. The early histories of these two programs differ because originally they aimed at very different goals: ESL aimed at acculturation mainly toward the dominant English speaking culture, while BE aimed at biculturation through the preservation of the non-dominant, non-English speaking culture as well as the acquisition of English as a second language and culture.

From perhaps the early 1900's to the middle sixties ESL education philosophy may have essentially meant EOL, English as the ONLY language. In contrast, Bilingual Education has always intended English to be one of two languages in use in the U.S.: as a second language for language minority learners and as the first language (of two) for language majority learners.

While BE has always considered English as the other language, ESL has only recently (within the last 10 years) recognized the non-English or first language as an important factor and goal of this dual language development event. While there are many very sensitive ESL teachers, there are still places where very little to none of the first language is used whether or not it supports culture maintenance, self-esteem and the learning of English.

The early and later histories of both these programs have been intertwined strongly since both language education approaches are used with non-English/limited-English proficient students (LEPs) or used with language-minority students from within the states and with non-English foreign students at all levels of formal education.

BE earlier and ESL later began to appreciate the positive, negative and neutral transfer and development effects or the two-way/mutual cross-linguistic influences of the two languages on each other, including the code-mixed variety. The early and later histories of both these language programs are intertwined in terms of the early and later theories of language acquisition/development and therefore instruction. Both began with basically isolated linguistic skills methods of several kinds and both have since moved toward more authentic communicative, natural, wholistic, participatory and interactive developmental language approaches (Richard-Amato, 1988).

Both BE and ESL, at different times and to different degrees have tried the early language instruction methodologies: grammar translation method, direct method, and the audio-lingual method. Both, originally stressed oral proficiency while today all the language arts are seen as synchronously and simultaneously important to each other's development (Blair, 1982).

While all children might ideally be included in BE programs the ESL's target population remains the non or limited-English student. Only recently have ESL educators seen themselves as leaders of two-way bilingual programs for majority and minority language speakers. Bilingual acquisition has been fraught with the issues of political power more than with the issue of its epistemological power.

Underlying Commonality of Definition

The meaning of bi in bilingual education and the meaning of second in English as a second language make the two programs essentially the same, since bi means two and second implies a first. The similar and very significant educational responsibility they both have is to help the dual language learner integrate not simply two languages but two cultures and ways of living into one unique wholistic identity (Valdéz, 1986). It is important then to stress the obvious overlap in definitions of the two in order that other extraneous definitions which continue to keep the two programs separated from each other be eliminated.

Both teachers must begin to internalize a stronger conception of BE and ESL as: a) two relatively independent but mostly interdependent language teaching systems; b) facilitation of two interpersonal processes in one larger intrapersonal one; c) support for two socialization paths toward a wider biethnic and bicultural one; d) instruction in two means of communication and cognition; e) help developing two temporal, spatial and propositional symbolic and representational systems; f) appreciation of two systems of ideas, attitudes, values and practices; g) help integrating two socially complementary networks of language experiences; h) help developing awareness of two objects of analysis or metalinguistic competence; i) appreciation of two shared meanings, scripts and ways of organizing knowledge; j) help constructing two dynamic forms of the interaction between thought, language, and perception; and lastly k) help developing two different but equally valued ways of using language for community and cognition purposes (Spradley, 1972; Piatt, 1990).

Dual Language Wholism

Among the other important contributions of whole language theory must be the emancipation of the study of language from its monolingual form only. It is through whole language theory, research, and analysis that BE and ESL theory will find their strongest basis for mutual cooperation.

Both BE and ESL teachers must see the goal of dual language acquisition process not as two monolinguals but as one integrative bilingual one with unique interlanguage capacities such as mixing, translating, transferring, borrowing, switching, and nativizing / de-nativizing first and second language forms.

Grosjean (1985) has written an excellent statement which helps us view the bilingual not as two monolinguals in one person, but as a unique configuration of a perfectly competent speaker-hearer and reader-writer in his/her own right. A unique and specific configuration as a result of a unique intercultural experience.

Everything that wholism means in one language is a fortiori, (with greater reason, or all the more so) in dual or multilingual situations. Every aspect of human development is a wholistic process and a relatively wholistic end-state. And so it is also with the development of bilinguality.

Human language has two wholistic functions: a) external adaptation or communication, and b) internal organization or cognition. The characteristics of one are the characteristics of the other. In bilinguality there is yet a third equilibration or configuration: the communication and cognition of combined languages for a third type of adaptation and organization.

The study of the unique behavior/characteristics of bilinguality is still in its infancy, but we do know that between one language and the other there are for the bilingual language user a whole range of intermediary language forms which are also quite wholistic and purposeful to the communicative and cognitive functioning of the individual (Hamers & Blanc, 1990).

What makes the bilingual unique is not some sort of personality split, but the integrated behavior patterns from two cultures which he/she can apply successfully to appropriate settings. The bilingual person develops specific psycholinguistic mechanisms in which both languages are interrelated to different degrees. The interdependence hypotheses lends support to the wholism of these psycholinguistic processes. The bilingual person develops these psycholinguistic mechanisms which enable him/her to function alternatively in one or the other languages/cultures or in a mixed mode. The bilingual person has developed a unique knowledge of the relations between the two codes, which no monolingual ever attains (Hamers & Blanc, 1990).

Bilinguality is itself a unifying and integrating process attempting completeness within and across two specifically distinct linguistic codes and modes of representation. Bilinguality processes aim at remaining integral, complete, and meaningful given two symbol systems which are not equivalent in many linguistic ways.

In summary again, the task of the developing bilingual person is to acquire the wholism of communication in each language and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two objects of analysis and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two symbol systems and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two communities and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of temporal, spatial and propositional forms and representations and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two systems of practices, ideas, attitudes and values and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two social cognition systems and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two socially interactive contexts and these combined; to acquire the wholism of two non-linguistic or paralinguistic systems and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two socialization or enculturation processes and then these combined; to acquire two dynamic forms of the interactions of language and thought and perception and these combined; to acquire the wholism of two sets of scripts and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two language experiences and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two social networks and then these combined; to acquire the wholism of two differentially valued and often socially conflicting languages and then combine these; to reconcile the wholism of two interpersonal processes into one intrapersonal one.

Only when both types of teachers come to see the unity and wholism in dual language acquisition will their curricular programs complement and enrich each other and therefore be of greater use to the dual language learner.

Questions and Implications

The continued study of the overlap between BE and ESL theory and research is imperative if greater coordination and collaboration between these two programs is their goal. BE and ESL teachers must come to view each other's objectives as dealing with the same phenomenon. BE and ESL teachers should ask and research the same issues and questions which have implications for both types of instruction.

Do they both recognize and appreciate this phenomenon as a dual acquisition process? If so, do they recognize the many factors (49 according to Schumann, 1978) affecting dual language acquisition such as social, affective, personality, cognitive, biological, and instructional? Do they appreciate the wide variations in linguistic capacity among learners for dual phonemic encoding, dual grammatical sensitivity, dual memory, etc.?

Do they understand the complexity of such a process? Can they recognize some universals across the languages as well as the most distinct features? What is their knowledge of first language acquisition process contrasted/compared with second language acquisition processes? What stages can be identified in this special linguistic developmental path? Is this dual language acquisition process viewed as two separate conflicting paths and competing processes? Do they understand the uniqueness and specificity of dual language learning behavior? What appreciation do both BE and ESL teachers have of the concept of "interlanguage" or "learner language variety"? What is their response to code-switching and mixing, or other cross-linguistic transfers or influences between the two languages? Is the "strange" language or "errors" these learners make viewed as capricious and as weak linguistic intelligence, or as arising from bilinguistic developmental and transfer strategies available to them as a complex of different types of rules? What knowledge do teachers in both programs have of contrastive analysis, errors/miscue analysis, discourse analysis, etc., in order to better appreciate this linguistic behavior as systematic but creative and variable as all other linguistic behavior is also?

Do both teachers appreciate the special identity development these students will have to construct from two cultures? Do both teachers understand the social-psychological distance operating within each student as they approach the learning of two languages and ways of living? Do they fully understand the learner's predispositions to learning a second language and the problem of maintaining or losing their first language and culture?

How does their knowledge of the dual language learner and the dual acquisition process affect their language instruction and pedagogy? Do both teachers respond in creative but fairly consistent ways to these learners? Will the activities of the BE teacher complement and support those of the ESL teacher and vice versa? Are they both clear on what types of competencies and accomplishments they are moving toward for the learners: strategic competencies, discourse competency, communicative competence, linguistic competence, socio-linguistic competence (including the code mixed/switched variety) etc.? To what end-state or proficiency level are each of the teachers striving for the languages in question? What will the ultimate purpose and role of each language be? In short, are they both supporting the process of becoming bilingual? Do they have knowledge and faith that bilingualism is a capacity available to all humans?

Lastly, do they recognize how much and which part of this process is their responsibility and how much and which part of the process belongs to the learner and to other factors? Do they recognize the delicate balance of factors which support the natural language acquisition process for two languages?

Conclusions

As both language programs continue to more clearly define their specific philosophies, purposes and approaches, such definitions are beginning to overlap in imperative and important ways. While today BE and ESL teachers may have great difficulty getting together to coordinate their work, many have and more are moving in this direction. Both programs to differing degrees are beginning to appreciate and understand more fully the complexity of dual language acquisition and learning and therefore of dual language teaching and instruction. First and second whole language theory and research is moving in the direction of integrating the two (Lessow-Hurley, 1990).

BE and ESL's main point of intersection lies within the student whose linguistic context and circumstances will have required him/her to develop both English and another language. This type of student may very well be the majority of students in the near future. English as a first language or English as a second language will come to have its counterpart: non-English language as a first language or a second language. The dual language learning or dual language acquisition or development process of these students must be better understood by both BE and ESL teachers. Socio-psycholinguistic theories of bilinguistic development are quite new but they have already begun to shed some light on the psychological processes which dual language learners experience.

These learners face a formidable yet not impossible task and process which will undergo developmental changes toward a more/less ideal end-state in each language (the continued growth which depends upon a supportive developmental context).

Both programs are beginning to understand their mutual goal and role more fully. Bilingual Education and ESL by another name are both dual language instruction programs. Although their histories are somewhat different today they both aim at similar linguistic and educational goals: the bilinguistic/bicultural development of both language minority and language majority students. Both have begun to see biculturalism as a pre-requisite for the multicultural goals many educators aim for, and both see multiculturalism as a way of life global society may have to adopt to a large extent within and across nations.

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PARENTS, TEACHERS, AND STUDENTS INTERACTIVE WHOLE LANGUAGE

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Abstract

In a technological era, reading and critical thinking skills lay the foundation for future success. Parents and teachers can work together to help students develop comprehension and critical thinking skills. By using some simple questioning techniques, they can lay the foundation for helping the child develop language. Questioning techniques designed to elicit and practice different language structures promote language development in a natural, whole language approach.

Ten questioning techniques complete with the desired language structures to be elicited can be used in a whole language setting to promote language and thinking skills. These techniques are used as teachers and/or parents read a story with the child. They are not presented in a progressive manner from simple to complex, but as they might be asked based on the story information as it appears in the book. Reading stories and using the questioning techniques provide an excellent whole language setting contributing to the student's thought process, language development, and communication skills while building a bond between reader, writer, and student.

Introduction

In a technological era where most jobs are requiring higher thinking skills and reading abilities, it is essential that students learn from an early age to interact in situations which are conducive to developing these. Reading to or with children at all ages through a whole language approach while observing ten simple questioning techniques designed to elicit and practice different language structures can promote the necessary critical thinking skills needed for future reading and language competence.

In using stories, preferably good literature, the basic beliefs which make up the whole language philosophy are put into place. The students are able to proceed from getting the overall picture to discovering the specifics within the story. They are actively involved relating to the story, and there is an immediate meaning and purpose derived from the reading. Social interaction takes place as the questions focus on the exchange of ideas and feelings. Oral language is plentiful and when desired students may proceed to rewriting parts of the story, responding to it, or creating their own story. By engaging in a meaningful activity based on the students' interests and backgrounds and providing for active participation, the teacher helps the students develop a positive self-esteem as well as skills in oral and written language.

The ten questioning techniques demonstrate the various stages of thought process and language development which students move through in both their primary language and their second language. The options given in the possible answers range from the simplest one word answer to the more complex sentence structures. There is a natural variety of sentence structures and tenses in the questions and answers which are easily practiced. Other tenses and structures can be included as the reading activity is extended.

The adult needs to keep in mind that when students respond incorrectly or with short answers, proper modeling should be provided in a non-threatening manner. Simply repeating the correct structure without identifying the mistake made by the students will suffice to expose them to the form needed. Repetition of the types of questions missed with active modeling will provide practice which will help master the concept.

It is important to point out that the questioning techniques to be presented do not constitute whole language instruction per se. They should be considered a small part of an instructional program which promotes language development and critical thinking skills. Therefore, in order to understand the questioning techniques that will follow, it will be necessary to first explain what whole language is not, followed by what it is. To fully appreciate whole language philosophy and how questioning techniques are part of this philosophy, a brief discussion of the roots of whole language is given and to assist in understanding questioning as a technique, a cursory review of the questioning literature is presented. The ten questioning techniques will follow, along with an explanation of the language structures/functions that they elicit. The last section will address some issues concerning the questioning techniques as used by parents and teachers of second language learners.

What Whole Language Is Not

"Whole language is not a method (or a package or a program)" (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991, p. 39). "Whole language can't be packaged in a kit or bound between the covers of textbooks or workbooks" (Goodman, 1986, p. 63). "It is not an approach per se, though of course some kinds of activities can reasonably be characterized as whole language because they are consonant with this philosophy, while others are logically rejected by this philosophy" (Weaver, 1990, p. 3). "Though there are some instructional techniques that may be commonly found in whole language classrooms, no one technique or set of techniques makes up something called a 'whole language' method" (Rhodes & Shanklin, 1989). "So let us repeat: whole language is not a method. Nor are there any *essential* whole language methods. Some methods are easily made congruent with a whole language perspective" (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991, p. 42).

What Whole Language Is

Goodman (1986) summarizes the essence of whole language in five points. 1) Whole language involves the whole learner in learning whole language in whole language contexts. Simply stated, this means that nothing, from the learner to the learning, is segmented. In order to foster whole language learning, the teacher must recognize the totality of the learning process as well as the wholeness of the learner. Nothing or no one is viewed as fragmented or discrete. Rather, the learner and the learning situation are seen as a whole. 2) "Whole language assumes respect for the language, the learner, and for the teacher" (p.40). The child is accepted as is. He is not viewed as deficient in any way but rather as developing or emerging. Children are not divided into groups comprised of those who can and can't. Likewise, language is not divisible into listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Language is seen as an integration of these, as inclusive. Respect for the teacher means giving teachers responsibility for the instructional program. 3) The focus of whole language is on meaning. Language learning must be meaningful. When language learning occurs in artificial contexts, it loses its function or purpose and becomes meaningless. For the same reasons, oral language must occur in authentic speech contexts and literacy events, reading and writing, must be authentic. 4) Whole language recognizes that learners use language for different purposes and encourages them to risk making mistakes while acquiring and developing language, both oral and written. 5) "In a whole language classroom, all the varied functions of oral and written language are appropriate and encouraged" (p. 40).

Whole language views language, language development, literacy, and learning in very specific ways. These views are not exclusive to whole language philosophy but rather whole language embraces research from various disciplines, including cognitive psychology and learning theory, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropology, philosophy, and education. Whole language views language as: a social semiotic system (Halliday, 1978); a "supersystem composed of interdependent, inseparable subsystems" (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991, p. 11); predictable (Smith, 1971) and possessing aesthetic qualities (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991). Whole language recognizes the universals in language development and sees language learning as functional, natural and social (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991). In other words, language is learned through use, not by imitation or practice. It occurs naturally and as a result of a need to interact socially, that is, with others. Whole language views literacy in much the same way as oral language. Literacy, reading and writing, develops through use, as a dynamic process where the learner discovers and uses language (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991). Whole language sees learning as a social process (Vygotsky, 1978) best achieved through involvement (Freire, 1970) and as an outgrowth of the learner's interests and experimentations (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991).

The Roots of Whole Language

As mentioned previously, whole language is a philosophy that has been influenced by research findings from many disciplines. Whole language philosophy stems from a concept of learning which recognizes the active participation of the learner in deriving meaning as opposed to a passive, imitative role characterized by copying or repeating information. The transactional model supports the active concept of learning. Many of the beliefs attributed earlier to whole language are part of this model.

The basis of the transactional model is the cognitive/social model of learning reflected by the work of Vygotsky and Halliday cited previously. Thus, learning is seen as a social process through which meanings are created. As such, the learner is an active agent engaging in many interactions, taking risks, and making errors. The individuality of the learner is acknowledged and, thus, failure does not exist (Weaver, 1991).

By contrast, the transmission model, rooted in the behaviorist model, views learning as a process of skill-building which moves from part-to-whole and simple to complex. Habit formation forms the core of learning and thus the teacher directs the teaching and controls the instructional program. Correct responses are valued while risk-taking and errors are discouraged and/or penalized (Weaver, 1991).

Whole Language Implications for the Classroom

Raines and Canady (1990) identify six key elements of whole language instruction derived from research in psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and emergent literacy. 1) Young children learn through an "immersion in language and print" (p. 10). The same way that children learn to speak through immersion in a *language environment*, they learn to develop their language through an interaction with adults who read and engage them in discussions. 2) In order for children to develop their language, they must be provided with opportunities and resources to use language. Books provide a *print environment* from which they can extend their language and begin to make sense of the printed word. 3) Communication needs to be meaningful. By discussing the content of the books read to them, they are able to derive meaning from the spoken, as well as the written word. 4) The teacher serves as a role model for communication in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. 5) Communication is seen and accepted as a whole. At the same time, children are accepted as readers and writers. The teacher recognizes the various stages of literacy development that children exhibit and guides them as they refine their reading and writing to more closely approximate adult standards. 6) This brings us to the last key element, "attitude of expectancy" (p. 12). The same way that parents expect their children to listen and talk, the whole language teacher expects all children to read and write, all the while recognizing the various stages of emergent literacy.

Research on Questioning

The use of questions in the classroom is not only an inexpensive educational tool but also a valuable device for assessing the student's understanding of the concepts being taught. Research tells us that teachers do use questions as a teaching technique and furthermore much of the instructional time is spent on answering teachers' questions. According to Bromley (1988) teachers ask seventy questions, on an average, within a thirty minute lesson but seventy-five percent of the questions asked call for literal or factual information. Students need to practice answering questions that go beyond literal information (Bromley, 1988; Donaldson, 1978) but teachers need to ask students questions that require critical thinking (Alexander, 1988).

Questions can be used for many purposes. Groisser (1964) proposes eight functions that they may serve. His purposes and functions of questions are of a generic nature and may be applied to any lesson or discipline and while it can be said that every discipline makes use of questioning as a teaching technique, reading uses questioning strategies extensively. The strategies include the Question-Answer Relationship Strategy (QAR) (Raphael, 1982); the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA) (Vacca & Vacca, 1986); the Inferential Strategy (Hansen, 1981); the Guided Reading Procedure (GRP) (Manzo, 1969); and Radio Reading (Vacca & Vacca, 1986). In addition, efforts to develop question taxonomies that describe the different types of questions and purposes they achieve are ongoing (Sanders, 1966; Herber, 1970; Pearson & Johnson, 1978; Raphael, 1982; Goodman et al., 1987; Ada, 1988).

Basically, questions as an educational tool are important for the teacher to use because they permit students to become actively involved in the learning process rather than be passive recipients of knowledge. Since questions account for much of the teacher-learner dialogue, it follows that teachers need to know how to ask questions, why they are asking them, and understand the kinds of responses that students might give. Without this, teachers will continue to ask mostly literal-level questions. Understanding how questions may be asked, the types, and the students' answers should assist not only the teacher but also the students.

Ten Questioning Techniques for Developing Language and Thought Process

Ten question types for developing language and thought process will follow. Each will illustrate a different type of question and offer possible student answers. Neither the questions nor the student answers are meant to provide a question/answer hierarchy but rather to illustrate the types of questions that teachers/parents may ask and the types of responses students may give. In order to facilitate the student's language development and promote critical thinking skills, teachers need to recognize the different types of questions, as well as anticipate the kinds of student responses that will be elicited. Second language students may initially respond with one-word answers or responses that incorporate information from the teacher's question, so the teacher will need to help the students move beyond these kinds of responses by asking other types of questions. The different questions illustrate how a teacher may lead students to use and develop language through the discussion of a story. The book used to illustrate the questions is Tyrone, the Horrible by Hans Wilhelm.

1. YES/NO Questions. These are the easiest to answer since the answer is included in the question. There is also a fifty percent chance that students will answer the questions correctly.

a. Was Boland a little dinosaur?
Was Boland a little elephant?
Possible answers: Yes.
No.
Yes, he was a little dinosaur.
No, he wasn't a little elephant. He was a dinosaur.

"*He was a dinosaur,*" clarifies the answer and confirms that the student comprehends the question by recalling the information from the story.

b. Did he live with his mother and his father?

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Observe the use of the auxiliary verb *did* in the question which calls for the present tense of the verb *live*. In the extended student answer not using *did* in the sentence, there is a need for the student to know how to use the past tense form *lived*.

Possible answers: Yes.
No.
Yes, he did.
No, he didn't.
Yes, he lived with his mother and his father.
Yes, he lived with them.
No, he didn't live with his mother and his father.
No, he didn't live with them.

The use of the emphatic can also be included: Yes, he did live with them.

2. OR Questions. Again, the answer is included in the question but now the student is required to make a choice.

Did Boland play or fight with the other dinosaur children?

Irregular verbs will come in easily and again the structure with *did* will need to be emphasized with some students.

Possible answers: He played.
He fought.
He played with them
He fought with them.
He didn't fight with them; he played with them.
He didn't play with them; he fought with them.

It is possible to practice the present tense form *does* with these same questions. Then it will be necessary to notice that the answer will call for a change in the third person singular verb.

Does Boland play or fight with the other dinosaur children?

Possible answers: He plays with the other dinosaur children.
He fights with them.

However, it is important to note that if *does* is included in the negation, then the *s* is no longer employed with the main verb.

Possible answer: He **doesn't** fight. He plays with them.

3. SHORT ANSWER Questions. These are questions which usually begin with: **who, where, when, what**. In these the child needs to recall story information, but the answer is not in the question. *What, who,* and *where* questions will elicit different types of noun answers: things, persons, places, respectively, while *when* questions will call for an adverb. Here it is important to note that the student needs to be able to identify what is being asked about specifically. The signal is in the question word. The skill is to differentiate between the key question words.

What was Boland?
Who did he live with?
Where did he live?
When did he live?

Possible answers: Boland was a *dinosaur*.

He lived with *his mother and father.*
He lived in a *swamp forest.*
He lived *long ago.*

Notice that these answers ask for a combination transformation and completion from the students and even though they can answer with one word or a phrase, they should be encouraged to use extended language or complete sentence responses.

4. THOUGHT Questions. These questions usually start with **how** or **why**. The students need to process information, express their own thoughts, and demonstrate comprehension of what was read.

Why was Tyrone called Tyrone the horrible?
How does a bully act?
Possible answers: He was called Tyrone the horrible because ...
A bully ...

Thought questions lend themselves to a variety of interpretations. "Does bigger and stronger make a bully?" All the answers may be considered correct but when there is doubt that the student has fully thought through the answer, rather than saying the answer is not correct, the teacher should ask the student to clarify or support the answer. "Why do you think that ...?"

Thought questions serve two additional functions. 1) They lend themselves to bringing in traditional sayings or morals, such as, "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you." 2) They provide a way to relate specifically to the student's own experiences.

How does the one being bullied feel?
Have you ever been a bully? How did you feel as a bully?
Have you ever been bullied? How did you feel? How do you think the bully felt when he was bullying you?

5. SERIES RECALL Questions. These questions ask the child to remember a number of facts from the story which were *just* stated. Instead of asking the students to recall discrete or isolated facts as simple recall questions do, they are asked to relate a series of events which may be found in a paragraph or over several pages of the story.

Do you remember three things Tyrone did to Boland?
Possible answers: First he ...
Then he ... (or Next he ... or Second he ...)
Finally he ... (or Last he ... or Third he ...)

If the students have difficulty recalling the events, ask them to close their eyes and try to picture what happened. An extension of this can be to have the students tell, draw, or write about a process which they undertook.

6. DESCRIPTION Questions. The students are asked to verbally describe what was read or what was seen. This helps them develop the ability to use adjectives and adverbs. It provides an excellent opportunity for the teacher to use webbing and provide the written words for them to visualize and read.

What did Tyrone look like?
Can you tell me about Tyrone? What was he like? How did he act?
Possible answers: He was big and ugly, etc.

An extension might include having the student draw various characters with lines drawn to words describing them.

7. WHY and HOW Questions related to the child. After asking about the event in the story, the next question is directed to the child's own life or reaction. These questions may ask the student to draw a conclusion, empathize, relate a personal experience, and/or reflect on past actions.

"Why did Boland have a *difficult* time sleeping?" Note the change of word; the story uses *hard*. In order to extend the student's vocabulary, it helps to use *synonyms* as well as to introduce *antonyms* and to discuss *homonyms*.

How would you feel if Tyrone was bullying you?
What would you do?
Have you ever had someone do that to you?
Do you ever have a hard time sleeping? Why?

As an extension the students could draw their own story and write it to the best of their ability. This provides the teacher with valuable input on the skills the students have mastered and those areas needing additional practice.

8. RECALLING A SERIES IN CORRECT ORDER. This could be a series of events which are spread out over the story or within an extended context, several paragraphs.

Let's see if we can remember how Boland tried to solve his problem.

9. RETELLING THE STORY. The students may go through the book telling the story in their own words. Recalling the story characters and sequencing the events by paraphrasing permit them to engage in connected discourse in a meaningful way.

Can you tell me the story in your own words?

10. CHANGING THE STORY. The child may decide to change some parts or characters or events. Creative thinking, synthesizing, and evaluating are necessary skills for the student to employ in answering this type of question.

What if Boland became the bully?

Language Structures & Functions Elicited Through Questions

The discussion that follows is offered to assist in understanding the language structures and functions that the questions elicit. These are not intended for the parents. Parents do not need to understand these in order to use the questioning techniques. They are provided for the teacher to illustrate how questions may be used to help students develop their language and thinking skills.

1. YES/NO Questions. Even though students may respond with a simple yes or no, they should be encouraged to incorporate the information from the question into their answers. To do this requires the student to move the information and make what is called a movement transformation (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983). By replacing the proper noun, Boland, with the pronoun he, the student makes a substitution transformation (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983). When the teacher asks if Boland was an elephant, she checks on the student's recall of a story character and provides an opportunity for the student to use the negative participle NOT, or its contracted and suffixed form, -N'T.

2. OR Questions. The past tense of the auxiliary verb DO is used in the OR questions, calling for the use of past tense verbs in the answers. The student is given the opportunity to practice using regular and irregular past tense verbs.

3. SHORT ANSWER Questions. The student continues using transformations in the answers but must now supply additional information to complete the response.
4. THOUGHT Questions. These questions can ask the student to draw a conclusion from the story information or offer an explanatory or predictive inference.
5. SERIES RECALL Questions. The student is asked to organize explicitly stated information from a limited context, e.g., a paragraph, of the story in a sequential manner.
6. DESCRIPTION Questions. A description requires the student to recall specific characteristics or qualities of a character or an event.
7. WHY and HOW Questions related to the child. By relating the story information to his own experiences, the student is able to understand the story from a personal perspective.
8. RECALLING A SERIES IN CORRECT ORDER. This question differs significantly from the Series Recall question, since it asks for information revealed throughout the story. Whereas a Series Recall question may be answered in one sentence, a Recalling a Series question requires connected discourse, a paragraph-type response.
9. RETELLING THE STORY. The language functions demonstrated by this type of question are similar to the previous type but differ in scope. Recalling a Series question will deal with only specific events from the story while retelling the story will span the entire book. This type of question, "Can you tell me the story in your own words," is important for another reason. It asks the child to recognize an indirect speech act. Although the question can be answered with a yes or no, either response would be inappropriate. The student is being asked to recall, organize, and state the significant events of the story.
10. CHANGING THE STORY. The student's creative use of language as well as critical thinking skills are needed in order to answer this type of question.

Relating Questioning Techniques to Parents and Second Language Learners

Parents are not expected to know the theories of learning that govern educational pedagogy or the language structures and functions that questioning techniques elicit, but they can be encouraged to interact with their children in a meaningful, positive way that facilitates the child's language development and promotes critical thinking. It is not unrealistic to provide them with a list of the questions and the student's answers, minus the explanation of the language structures and functions, and explain to them how they can ask different questions while they read to their child. One of the governing principles of whole language identified by Weaver (1991) states, "to foster emergent reading and writing in particular, whole language teachers attempt to replicate the strategies parents use successfully to stimulate the acquisition of language and the 'natural' acquisition of literacy" (p. 23). Parents can be helped to see that they already know how to stimulate their child and the same way that perfection is not expected from their child, it is not expected from them. The goal is to read with the child and ask questions to promote language and critical thinking.

To explain some concerns or issues related to how parents may use these questioning techniques and how they relate to second language learners, a question and answer format will be used.

How do parents know when to move on to the next level of question? The questions are not arranged in a hierarchy, but as they might be asked based on the story information as it appears in the book. To impose an orderly, linear, hierarchical sequence to the questions would violate whole language philosophy. Rather, the parent, as well as the teacher, ask the questions naturally in a conversational manner. If the child cannot answer the question, the parent/teacher may supply the answer in a non-threatening or non-judgmental fashion.

How many questions at each level are "enough"? This would be like asking, "How do you know when an infant is full when you're feeding him?" You know because the child lets you know. If the child is frustrated or confused, you try a different type of question. The key is to permit the child to experience success while developing his ability. Some stimulation is necessary for growth but too much results in frustration.

Should the questions be asked during or after reading? Questions should be asked as needed to approximate the natural acquisition of literacy fostered by parents when they interact with their child. Questions should not interrupt the story sequence but enhance a natural social interaction between the parent/teacher and the child. Some questions are best asked after the story is read and others during the reading.

What if the parent or teacher asks a question in one language and the student responds in another? "This language [the child's first language] has been so well learned that no conscious effort is involved in its use. It is deeply internalized. Children's language is as much a part of them as their own skin. Rejection of children's language may be more deeply disturbing than rejection of their skin color. The latter is only an insult, the former strikes at their ability to communicate and express their needs, feelings -their selves" (Goodman & Goodman, 1991, p. 85).

Should the child's dialect be allowed in the process? "For whole language teachers what is important is that each dialect is a bona fide language system. Speakers of low-status dialects do not speak standard English poorly; they speak their home dialects well. Teacher need to be well aware of this fact in daily instruction ...*Whole* language implies celebrating language in all its variety. We start in whole language, as Dewey advised, where the child is. The goal is never to reject one language form and replace it with another. Rather, the goal is to expand on the base of the home dialect and to support learners as they add other dialects and registers to their repertoire" (Goodman & Goodman, 1991, p. 83).

When, how, or should the child be allowed to ask questions and the adult respond? It is important for the child to be allowed to ask questions. "Asking questions is a form of making predictions ... predicting is critical to comprehension ... much of the research supports the idea that children who are good questioners are also good comprehenders" (Bromley, 1988, p. 113).

How does one use the first and/or second language when using these questions? A guiding principle of whole language is on "meaning." Assuming the teacher knows the child's native language, she should use the first language as needed to convey meaning, all the while helping the child develop communicative competence in English.

Should the book be read first in one language or another? When should the book be read in the other language? If the classroom is bilingual or if the teacher is bilingual, the teacher can choose when the book will be read in the first language. Usually in a bilingual classroom, the curriculum dictates when language arts is provided in the first language and in English. If the classroom is not a bilingual classroom but the teacher is bilingual, the decision should be based on the student's familiarly with the concepts in the first language. Whole language recognizes the importance of building on what the child knows and that the child knows more than most realize or acknowledge. In addition, literacy in the first language transfer to the second. "Once literacy is developed in the first language, the development of literacy in the second language comes much more easily" (Krashen, 1991, p. 86). Lower-level literacy, the ability to read in the first language, transfers to the second language while higher-level literacy, problem solving, need not be re-learned in the second language.

If the teacher is not bilingual, the parents will be the ones to introduce the book in the first language. Whole language philosophy strongly believes in involving the parents, both at school and at home.

Conclusions

Merely using a questioning strategy does not make a lesson whole language-based. Questioning techniques are used extensively by teachers at each level in all disciplines. Whole language instruction is more than one technique; it is rooted in an instructional program that encompasses every activity, every student, every parent and recognizes that teaching skills in isolation is as detrimental to the instructional program as not recognizing the knowledge that each child brings to the classroom. The questioning techniques are provided as one tool to be used as part of a total instructional program, a program which assumes a holistic approach to language, teaching, and learning.

All of these questioning techniques lend themselves to extended activities using drawings and writing in either a journal or notebook. The atmosphere for the story reading and the questioning techniques should be warm and conducive to learning in a relaxed non-threatening manner. Application of the skills should be encouraged in other activities. Progress should be monitored in order to keep the interaction stimulating. And last but not least, it is important to provide parents with the techniques in their own language to be used with books which will foster the development of the child's primary language.

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APPENDIX

DIEZ TÉCNICAS INTERROGATIVAS PARA EL DESARROLLO DEL LENGUAGE Y DEL PENSAMIENTO

1. Preguntas contestadas con SÍ/NO. Estas son las preguntas más fáciles de contestar ya que la respuesta está en la pregunta. También existe una probabilidad de contestar correctamente 50% del tiempo.

a. ¿Era Boland un pequeño dinosauro?
¿Era Boland un pequeño elefante?
Respuestas posibles: Sí.
No.
Sí, él era un pequeño dinosauro.
No, él no era un pequeño elefante. Él era un dinosauro.

b. ¿Vivía él con su mamá y su papá?
Respuestas posibles: Sí.
No.
Sí vivía.
No vivía.
Sí, él vivía con su mamá y papá.
Sí, vivía con ellos.
No, él no vivía con su mamá y su papá.
No, él no vivía con ellos.

2. Preguntas de O. La respuesta otra vez se encuentra en la pregunta pero ahora existe una opción.
¿Jugaba o peleaba Boland con los otros pequeños dinosauros?
Respuestas posibles: Jugaba.
Peleaba.
Jugaba con ellos.
Peleaba con ellos.
No peleaba con ellos, jugaba con ellos.
No jugaba con ellos, peleaba con ellos.

3. Preguntas con RESPUESTAS CORTAS. Estas preguntas normalmente empiezan con: ¿Quién? ¿Dónde? ¿Cuándo? ¿Qué?. En estas el niño necesita recordar información. La respuesta no se encuentra en la pregunta.
¿Quién era Boland?
¿Con quién vivía?
¿Dónde vivía?
¿Cuándo vivió?
Respuestas posibles: Boland era un dinosauro.
Boland vivía con su mamá y su papá.
Vivía en un bosque pantanoso.
Vivió hace mucho tiempo.

4. Preguntas que requieren PENSAMIENTO. Estas preguntas normalmente empiezan con cómo o por qué. El niño necesita procesar información y expresar sus propios pensamients o su comprensión de lo que fue leído.
¿Por qué le llamaban a Tyrone, Tyrone el Horrible?

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¿Cómo actúa un peleonero?
Respuestas posibles: Le llamaban Tyrone el Horrible porque ...
Un peleonero ...

5. Preguntas de RECORDAR UNA SERIE. El niño necesita poder recordar varios datos los cuales acaban de ser presentados.
¿Recuerdas las tres cosas que le hizo Tyrone a Boland?
Respuestas posibles: Primero él ...
Luego él ... (o En seguida él ... o Segundo él ...)
Finalmente él ... (o Por último él ... or Tercero él ...)

6. Preguntas de DESCRIPCIÓN. El niño debe describir verbalmente lo que fue leído o visto.
¿Qué apariencia tenía Tyrone?
¿Me puedes platicar sobre Tyrone? ¿Cómo era? ¿Cómo actuaba?
Respuestas posibles: Él era grande y feo ...

7. Preguntas de ¿POR QUÉ? y ¿CÓMO? relacionadas al niño. Después de preguntar sobre un evento en el cuento, la siguiente pregunta se dirije a la vida o reacción del niño.
¿Por qué tenía Boland dificultad en dormir?
¿Cómo te sentirías si Tyrone estuviera peleando contigo?
¿Qué harías?
¿Alguna vez has tenido a alguien que te ha tratado así?
¿Has tenido dificultad durmiendo a veces? ¿Por qué?

8. RECORDANDO UNA SERIE EN EL ORDEN CORRECTO. Estas pueden ser series de eventos que occuren a través del cuento. Vamos a ver si podemos recordar como trató Boland de resolver sus problemas.

9. CONTANDO EL CUENTO DE NUEVO. El niño puede repasar el libro contando el cuento en sus propias palabras.

10. CAMBIANDO EL CUENTO. El niño puede decidir cambiar algunas partes o eventos del cuento.
¿Y qué pasaría si Boland se convierte en un peleonero?

WHOLE LANGUAGE: HOW DOES IT SUPPORT SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS?

David Freeman
Yvonne Freeman

Abstract

This paper briefly reviews seven false assumptions often held about bilingual learners and gives whole principles that offer alternatives to those false assumptions. We then discuss in depth a seventh false assumption that directly deals with supporting the bilingual learner's first language: "Learning must take place in English to facilitate assimilation." By giving specific classroom examples, we suggest ways of working with English as a second language learners using their first language in the whole language classroom.

The seven false assumptions examined in this paper include: (1) learning proceeds from part to whole; (2) classes should be teacher-centered; (3) lessons should serve future needs of students; (4) learning takes place as individuals practice skills and form habits; (5) learning oral language proceeds learning to read and write; (6) bilingual learners have limited potential; (7) learning should take place in English to facilitate assimilation. It is concluded that when Whole Language teachers provide primary language support, their approach is the best one for bilingual learners.

After a presentation given at a recent Whole Language conference, we were surprised and concerned when bilingual teachers in the audience came up to us afterwards thanking us for being so supportive of primary language development for second language students. There was concern because it seemed obvious to us that whole language advocates would naturally support bilingual education. One goal of whole language is to teach the whole person, and that goal naturally includes drawing on and building on the strengths of the first language and culture of all students.

That experience promoted serious thinking about the message that some educators may be getting about whole language and its purpose, especially for language minority students. Because whole language teachers support second language students by providing comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), teachers may believe that primary language support is not necessary if a teacher is using whole language. Support for the first language and culture of second language students is essential. Whole Language teachers can support the first language and culture of all their students even when the teachers have children from many different language backgrounds and do not themselves speak the first languages of their students.

This paper we will briefly review six common-sense assumptions often held about second language learners, and we will give the whole language principles that offer alternatives to those assumptions. Then it will discuss in depth a seventh assumption that directly deals with supporting the first language: "Learning must take place in English to facilitate the acquisition of English."

By giving specific classroom examples, the paper will suggest ways of working with English as a second language learners using their first language in the Whole Language classroom.

Second Language Learners: Common-sense Assumptions and Whole Language Principles

The instruction that many second language learners have received in schools has been, for the most part, fragmented and disempowering (Crawford, 1989; Cummins, 1989; Flores, 1982). This instruction has often been based on a set of assumptions about bilingual students that serve to limit their potential as learners (Freeman & Freeman, 1989a; Freeman & Freeman, 1989b; Freeman & Freeman, 1989c). Below, there are seven assumptions that have hindered school success for language minority students. Each of these assumptions is contrasted with a Whole Language principle which expands the potential for educational success.

Assumptions about Bilingual Learners

Common-sense Assumptions	Whole Language Principles
1. Learning proceeds from part to whole.	1. Learning proceeds from whole to part.
2. Lessons should be teacher centered because learning is the transfer of knowledge from the teacher to the student.	2. Lessons should be learner centered because learning is the active construction of knowledge by the student.
3. Lessons should prepare students to function in society after schooling.	3. Lessons should have meaning and purpose for the student now.
4. Learning takes place as individuals practice skills and form habits	4. Learning takes place as groups engage in meaningful social interaction.
5. In a second language, oral language acquisition precedes the development of literacy.	5. In a second language oral and written language are acquired simultaneously.
6. The learning potential of bilingual students is limited.	6. Learning potential is expanded through faith in the learner.
7. Learning should take	7. Learning should take

place in English to facilitate the acquisition of English.	place in the first language to build concepts and facilitate the acquisition of English.

Assumption #1: Learning Goes from Part to Whole

Traditionally, language teaching has been fragmented with lessons focusing on the teaching of isolated vocabulary words, the grammar rules, or the sounds of the target language. Although it may seem logical that the learning of a second language should proceed from these small parts to the whole, it is not psychological. Our brains are constantly trying to make sense of the parts we are given. We continually try to figure out what the whole is. When we are shown a part of a puzzle, for example, we immediately try to visualize the whole picture. Normally, we look at the picture on the cover of the box.

When second language learners are taught parts of a language out of the context of functional language use, they are often at a loss as they try to put the parts together. They have no big picture to look at. As a result, students may memorize irregular verbs for a test, but use them inappropriately in conversation because there is no connection between the test, with its emphasis on isolated parts, and a real conversation, which demands a focus on the whole communicative intent of language.

Second language learners have even more problems learning the parts when their experiential background is not the same as the teacher's or other students' backgrounds. Because of this, the whole, the way these parts fit together, is difficult for these students to figure out. An example of this comes from Pao, a Southeast Asian student from Vince's fourth grade classroom. Pao recently wrote "You somebody" in his journal when trying to describe a recent field trip. Fortunately, his teacher realized the student was trying to make sense of the name for the National Park they had visited, "Yosemite." Pao had heard the name and was trying to fit the name into English language words he already knew. Since Vince had shared Pao's experience, he was able to fit the parts of language Pao produced into a meaningful whole.

Whole to part: inductive vs. deductive reasoning?

The question of whether to teach from part to whole or whole to part is not a new way to get at skills. Nor is it a revival of the old debate over inductive versus deductive teaching either. Whole language teachers often present students with specific examples and ask students to draw general conclusions. Whole language teachers involve students in both inductive and deductive reasoning. In addition, they encourage students to engage in abductive reasoning. In this kind of divergent thinking, students move away from established patterns and brainstorm new solutions to problems and see subjects in new ways. In whole language classrooms, teachers and students use all kinds of reasoning to explore questions that interest both the teacher and the students. However, the focus is always on the larger concept, and students are always aware of the big question they are trying to answer.

Assumption #2: Lessons should be Teacher-Centered

Vince was also successful with Pao because he centered on the learner. Since English as a second language learners do not know English and the teacher does, there is often a temptation to have a teacher-centered rather than a learner-centered classroom. It is important to remind ourselves as educators that language-minority students know a lot, they just do not speak English. In Crossing the Schoolhouse Border (Olsen, 1988), a report on California immigrant students, this was clearly explained in an interview with one eleventh grade Mexican student who felt misplaced when the school put him in Basic Math:

> For me, they shouldn't have put me in Basic Math. I should have been in Algebra. But there is more English vocabulary in Algebra so they said I couldn't take it until I learned more English. I felt I was spending time with things I already knew, but then that's required of Latin immigrants. We waste our time because we don't know English yet. (p. 50)

Second language learners have many stories to tell and will do so eagerly when given the opportunity to talk about their experiences. Many people working with language-minority students have listened to them and encouraged them to talk. Telling their stories has empowered these students and informed us as educators. Another quote from Crossing the Schoolhouse Border given by a tenth grade Mexican immigrant shows us how learner-centered classrooms can make a difference:

> My ESL Teacher helped me a lot in my first year here. I could relax there. I wasn't afraid. She told me not to be afraid to talk and she helped me. In my other classes I was always confused and lost and I didn't want to ask anything because of my bad English ... (p.62).

In many whole language classrooms, immigrant students write their personal histories and, in this way, are able to show their background knowledge, their creativity and learn English at the same time. A poem in a book published by ESL students, written by Ger Vang, a Hmong middle school student, provides us with background, demonstrates his creativity, and shows his increasing command of English:

My Life
My house in
    Thailand was
        a little dirty but
not so much. When we
    lived in Thailand
I was little. I didn't know anything.
    I just played and
        jumped the rope.

When I came to the
United States
I had to
study
very
hard.

When
I
get
home. I
study
help
eat
clean
watch
work
Then
P
L
A
Y.

Assumption #3: Lessons Should Focus on the Future

All too often, the curriculum is centered on the future. Students are told to learn because "someday you are going to need to know what is being taught today." Kindergarten content is taught so children will be "ready" for first grade, first grade prepares children for second, and this future orientation continues all the way through high school or even college where students are prepared to function in society in the future. A goal of whole language teachers is to give students a function and purpose for what they are doing now. These teachers have found that unless students see a present purpose in what they are learning, they usually will not learn it.

Jane, a resource teacher who works with Hispanic students, has found a way to make writing meaningful and purposeful for students. Instead of using writing as a form of punishment, she has students write to avoid being punished. In this writing sample, Miguel shows his ability to use logical argumentation as he writes to convince Jane that he should have his ball back.

> Why do I deserve my ball
> I deserve to have my ball becous it cost alot of money. And my dad
> will get mad at me for loesing it. And my mom will get mad at me
> becous she will say that she waisted all of her money to some man
> for a teacher could take it away. All I want is my ball. I was
> playing with it when the bell rang because when I got to school
> evrybody had the courts and I was board so when the bell rang
> I started to have some fun. Becous I didn't have fun befor the bell
> rang. Please may I have my ball back? Thank you. Miguel

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While Miguel's writing contains errors in spelling and grammar, his message can be understood, and because he is engaged in writing, he is moving toward control of conventional forms. The writing he does here serves an immediate need for Miguel.

Francis, an adult education ESL teacher, shared an example of student work with us that shows how powerful writing can be for second language learners when there is a function and an immediate purpose for the writing. One of her students, a Lao mother, produced a two-page essay because she wanted her children to remember that life was not always as good as they have it now.

Although the letter contains non-conventional grammar and spelling, the message is clear and the mother's voice comes through strongly as she tells of life before the arrival of the Vietnamese Communists and the contrast after: "After that in 1975 Vietnamie Communist belong to the Laos They wer kill orther people...who do not belong with their side..." She tells of her fear, "if they want to killer someone they came to the house at night time they took the peple to the Jungle and kill, it make me scare in my life..." She describes the hardships, "... When i swim the Mekong river I was afriad of many thing snakes, crocodiles leech the communitist and water when I were in the camp I did not have clothes or blanket ..." She ends her story with, "... in my new life I have a new land to stay and freedom." This mother had a function and an immediate purpose for using her new language.

Students often have difficulty studying for things they will need in the future. They learn best when they understand how assignments serve their present needs.

Assumption #4: Learning Takes Place as Students Work Alone to Form Habits

Because it is assumed that second language learners do not speak English correctly and might teach each other poor habits if they interact in English, they are sometimes isolated to work alone except when the teacher is controlling the language use while working with the whole class. Researchers (Long & Porter,1985; Kagan, 1986) have shown, however, that group work facilitates language learning. Not only does group work give second language learners more opportunities to use language, but it also improves the quality of the language used and motivates to use language in meaningful ways.

In whole language classrooms, students work together on projects to explore topics of interest to them. They investigate questions by reading together and talking together, and then they write up their findings and sometimes also present their findings orally to others. In Charlene's fourth grade classroom, children with different language backgrounds prepared a unit on oceanography to present to other classes in the school. Groups of children became experts on sea animals of their choice. They read about the animals, visited an ocean aquarium, wrote about their sea animals for a class book, made models of the animals to scale, decorated their classroom like an ocean, and then presented their knowledge to other classes and to parents who came to visit their student-created ocean aquarium on display.

Charlene's students developed a great deal of written and oral language as they worked together on this project. They conducted their research, did their writing, and made their presentations in small groups. As they worked together, both their language ability and their understanding of academic content increased much more rapidly than if they had carried out more typical individual research projects.

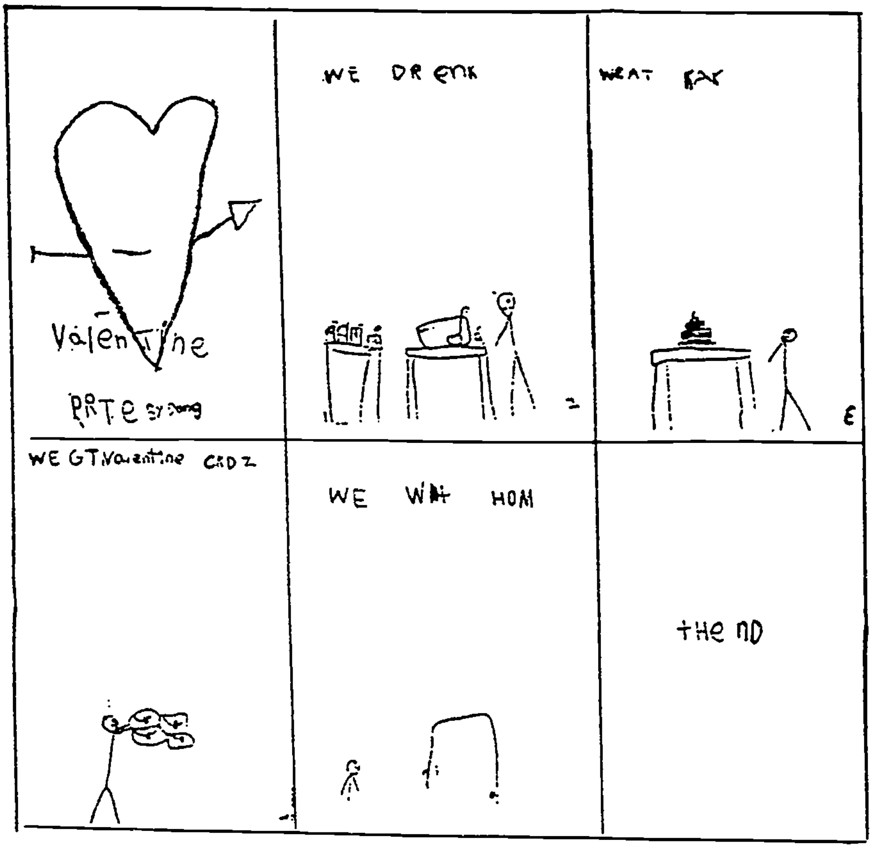


Figure 1: Illustrations and story written by Dang about Valentine's Day experience.

Assumption #5: Language Develops through the Sequence of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing

Traditionally, language teaching has moved from listening to speaking, from speaking to reading, and from reading to writing. The assumption has been that oral language acquisition precedes the development of literacy especially for second language learners. However, researchers looking at the development of literacy in second language children have shown that students benefit from being exposed to all four modes, listening, speaking, reading and writing, from the beginning. Many second language learners read and write before they speak or understand oral language (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1979; Hudelson, 1984,1986; Urzúa, 1986; 1989; Rigg, 1986; Edelsky, 1986).

In Katie's pre-first classroom, students discuss ideas and activities, read together, and write stories. They also write in their interactive journals daily. Children for whom English is a second language read and write from the start in Katie's classroom. This is demonstrated clearly by a story written by Dang Vue, a Hmong child. The children had talked and read about Valentine's Day. They made valentines and exchanged them and had their party. The next day, Dang choose to write and illustrate a story about the experience.

This example from Dang shows the value of introducing reading and writing from the beginning. There is no need to insist on perfect pronunciation before allowing a student to read or write. In fact, if students fail to develop literacy skills fairly rapidly, they will not be able to succeed at the academic tasks required of them.

Assumption #6: Limited English Proficient Students are also Limited in Other Ways

There is a tendency to underestimate the potential of second language learners because they do not speak English or because their background is different from the mainstream. Sometimes teachers or administrators view students who speak English as a second language as all the same, as a kind of "problem" that must be solved. After reading about second language learners and bilingual education and the importance in believing in their potential (Cummins, 1989; Krashen, 1985; Freeman & Freeman, 1989a), a teacher and graduate student who works with language-minority students recently reported on experiences she has had:

> It has disturbed me greatly to sit in teachers' lounges and be approached by other teachers with the proposition that I take some of their "below grade level" Hispanic students for reading because they "just didn't know how to motivate them."... I have actually seen teachers look at their class lists, count the language minority surnames and begin to formulate the high, middle, and low reading groups!

While some teachers don't believe that bilingual learners can succeed, many are discovering daily that when teachers have faith in their students, those students can exceed expectations. Tammy, a student teacher, relates this story about having faith in the learner:

> Roberto was a troublemaker. He not only never did his work, he kept others from doing theirs. He was disrespectful to me and I found it hard to like him. After our readings and discussions in class about having faith in the learner, I decided to try to be positive with Roberto. I smiled at him. I went to his desk and helped him with an assignment. One afternoon of positive response and he blossomed like a wilting plant that

> has been watered! I could not believe what a difference my positive encouragement had made.

When educators believe in learners, they make it possible for students to believe in themselves and succeed.

Assumption #7: Learning should Take Place in English to Facilitate the Acquisition of English

Opponents of bilingual education argue that students should be taught in English to become fluent in English and compete in our society. The controversy surrounding the benefits of bilingual education has continually confused not only the public but also educators. Since 1968 when the Bilingual Education Act was added as an amendment to the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, there has been misunderstanding about the purpose and effectiveness of bilingual education for language minority students. Bilingual education has been attacked by former President Reagan (Crawford, 1989) and former Secretary of Education, Bennett (1985) in the past and continues to be attacked in the present by U.S. English advocates (Imhoff, 1990).

Whole Language proponents believe that one of the best ways to show faith in second language learners is to support the development of their first language. When teachers support students' first language, they build on their strengths and validate them as individuals. They teach the whole child. Using a student's first language in school is important for several reasons: 1) Students build important background knowledge and concepts in their first language, and this helps them succeed academically later: 2) language-minority students come to value their own language and culture; and 3) second language students maintain important family ties and become valuable, bilingual members of the larger community.

Cummins (1989), Krashen & Biber (1988), and Collier (1989) have all shown that bilingual education leads to academic success. There is considerable research to support that students who speak, read and write their first language well, succeed academically in English. The common sense assumption that "more English equals more English" does not hold true. Frank Smith (1985) argues that we cannot learn what we do not understand. English is more comprehensible to language minority students when they are provided with background information about the content in their first language (Krashen, 1985). When concepts are taught in the first language, second language learners are able to quickly grasp those ideas and the language associated with those ideas in English (Cummins, 1989; Krashen, 1985).

Bilingual teachers can support English as a second language students by providing content instruction for them in their first language and allowing them to respond in their first language to the concepts they are developing. Kay, a bilingual kindergarten teacher, taught a lesson to her students that supported their first language and led to the acquisition English. First, Kay read two different versions of Goldilocks in Spanish: Los Tres Osos y Bucles de Oro and Los Tres Osos y Ricitos de Oro. Kay and the students then developed a chart comparing the two stories. The kindergarten children showed a good understanding of how the stories were the same yet different. The charting done with the teacher as the scribe is shown below:

Diferente	Diferente
Los Tres Oso y Ricitos de Oro	Los Tres Osos y Bucles de Oro
Ricitos se perdió en el bosque	Ricitos estaba paseandose en el bosque
Un conejo le ayudó	Estaba traviesa.
Los osos tenían chocolate	Comían sopa.
No había una silla que se quebró	La silla pequeña se quebró.
Ricitos tiene pelo chino.	Ricitos tiene pelo largo.
Los dibujos eran hechos con lápiz.	Los dibujos eran hechos de pintura.
Todos se ponen amigos.	Ricitos se fue corriendo.
Ricitos, en el fin, piensa que ve a los tres osos diciendo "adios"..	

Translation in English

Different	Different
Goldilocks got lost in the woods.	Goldilocks was taking a walk in the woods.
A bunny helped her.	She was naughty.
The bears had hot chocolate.	They ate soup.
There was not a chair that broke.	The small chair broke.
The drawings are done in pencil.	The pictures are painted.
Goldilocks has short,curly hair.	Goldilocks has long hair.
Everyone ended up friends.	Goldilocks left running.
Goldilocks thinks she sees the bears saying "Goodbye" at the end.	

El mismo	The same
Ambos tienen Ricitos de Oro.	Both have Goldilocks.
Ambos tiene tres osos.	Both have three bears.
Están en el bosque.	They were in the woods.
Hay camas.	There are beds.

After doing this exercise in Spanish with her students, Kay had the children draw their favorite part of the story. The children shared their pictures and described the pictures in English as Kay wrote their descriptions down. She then led a discussion in English about words that described the two books. The children came up with the words "exciting", "interesting" and "calm" which Kay wrote on a large chart. The whole class decided together if the portion of the story each child had chosen was "exciting", "interesting", or "calm". The children's pictures and the phrases Kay had written in English were put up on a large chart next to the words that best described the scenes.

Exciting: She wakes up! The bears are staring at her.
She runs away!
Bears find leftover soup.
Bears find chairs.

Interesting: Goldilocks goes into the bears house.
Goldilocks breaks baby bear's chair.
Calm: Bears go on walk in woods.
Goldilocks eats soup.

By teaching lessons such as this one, beginning with the children's first language, Kay leads her students toward future academic success in English and, at the same time, allows them to develop their first language.

Many teachers working with second language students do not speak their students' first language. However, teachers can support the development of the first language even when they do not speak the first language. Vince has discovered how important it is for bilingual children to be able to work in school in their first language. In a response to a reading by Hudelson (1987) on the importance of supporting a child's native language, Vince wrote about his experiences with one of his students:

> Chai came into my fourth grade classroom directly from the camps in Southeast Asia. She was the first second language student I was to come in contact with who felt good enough about her native language writing skills to employ them in class. I have to give the students in my class a lot of credit too, as they strongly supported and encouraged Chai in all her efforts. When she was finished writing a piece, she would read it to other Lao-speaking students in my class who would give suggestions on the content and share their ideas with her in Lao.

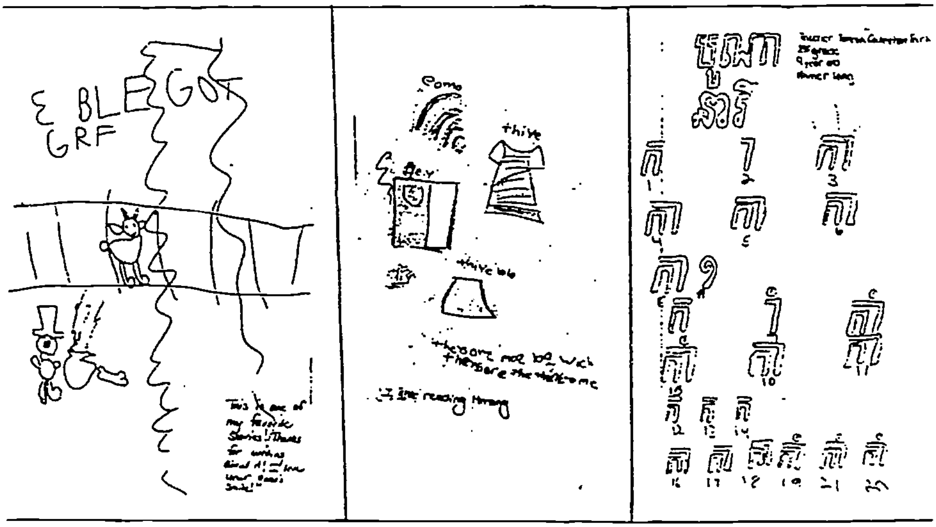
Vince described his doubts about letting Chai work in Lao because he somehow felt he wasn't "doing his job." She remained in his classroom for the rest of the year and seemed to be understanding some English, but she never spoke or wrote in English. The next year Vince met Chai's best friend who proudly explained that Chai was now speaking English and writing it too. Vince's wrote his reaction to the news:

> My first reaction was not one of achievement. It was rather a question as to what the fifth grade teacher had done that I hadn't done to get Chai to come this far along. Only later did it dawn on me that those early opportunities that empowered Chai were a big part of why she was comfortable speaking and writing English so soon after her arrival.

Vince had empowered Chai and allowed her to continue to develop in her first language. Sometimes, however, children are not literate in their first language, and it is difficult to know how to support them. However, when teachers show students the importance of their first language, they become empowered. Mo, a pre-first Hmong boy in Katie's classroom, proved that he could not only learn but also teach. Since Katie had several Hmong children in her class, she asked that a Hmong storyteller come to tell the story "Three Billy Goats Gruff." Before the storyteller came Katie read several versions of the folktale to her class. When the storyteller arrived, Katie insisted that he tell the story to the entire class in Hmong. She reasoned that the children knew the story so well they would be able to follow along. She was correct. All the children, no matter what their language background, enjoyed the story.

The real strength for Mo of having the story told to the whole class in Hmong became more and more obvious. First, Mo wrote and drew in his journal about his favorite story, "Three Billy Goats Gruff." (Figure 2, Panel 1) Then Mo became a "teacher" of Hmong to his own teacher. In Panel 2 of Figure 2, Mo drew and labelled pictures to demonstrate what he had written. Below the pictures, he wrote in English "theys are mog log wich theys are the thine to me"(These are Hmong language. These are the thing to me.). Katie responded telling him how she liked reading his Hmong. Katie reported that from the time of the visit from the Hmong storyteller, Mo showed an interest in school and pride in his first language and culture.

Teresa, a second grade teacher, also has found a way to support the first language of her students. After a class discussion on the importance of being bilingual, Navy, a Khmer student, took recess and lunch time for several days to produce a book of letters, numbers and words that would teach classmates and the teacher Khmer. Teresa had the book laminated and put in the class library (see Figure 2, Panel 3).



Panel 1 Panel 2 Panel 3

Figure 2: Illustrations made by Mo (Hmong) and Navy (Khmer) to help "teach" others their language.

Cross-age tutoring has been another excellent way to encourage students to read, write and interact in their first language even when the teacher only speaks English (Urzúa, 1990; Labbo & Teale, 1990). When upper grade bilingual students prepare to read to younger children and are matched with younger children who speak the same first language, both age groups benefit. Urzúa (1990) has worked with teachers whose Southeast Asian sixth graders read to kindergartners who speak the same first language. Even when they read books in English, the sixth graders support the first language of the younger children by building background knowledge for the children in their shared first language. As the children interact in both languages, both age groups improve their oral and reading skills. In fact, sometimes the sixth graders take notes on the lessons they prepare and evaluate their teaching, thus developing more reading and writing skills.

When it is impossible to arrange for children to go from one classroom to another, pen pal letters can support the development of the first language. Sam's bilingual first graders write to pen pals in the fifth grade as well as to students in the teacher education program at a nearby college. Whenever possible, Spanish-speaking students in Sam's Spanish/English bilingual classroom are matched with pen pals who can write in Spanish. Sam has noticed that when his students correspond with fluent Spanish writers, his first graders write meaningfully. A series of letters between Elena, a first grader, and Carolina, show that writing in a student's first language encourages real communication . In one letter Carolina asked Elena, "¿Qué vas a hacer para el día de San Valentín? ¿Van a tener una fiesta en tu salón de clase?(What are you going to do on Valentine's Day? Are you going to have a party in your classroom?) Elena's next letter responded directly to Carolina's questions: "Mi ma es tro si ba aser una fiesta en valentin y ba mos a comer pastel y stigurs tu a mi ga Elena" (My teacher yes is going to have a party on Valentine's Day and we are going to eat cake and (have) stickers your friend Elena)

Children, like Elena, Navy, Mo and Chai, who are encouraged to use their first language meaningfully, learn to feel good about their first language and culture and about themselves. They build background knowledge in their first language that transfers to English instruction. It is difficult to know what the future holds for these children, but the hope is that they will maintain their first language as well as learn English. Bilingual citizens can contribute positively in a future where more and more bilingual people will be needed in the work force. Perhaps even more importantly, however, second language students need a positive self image to share with their own children. Nancy, a teacher of Portuguese descent who did not maintain her own first language and culture writes painfully of her loss. She does not want her Southeast Asian and Hispanic students to feel as she does when they are adults:

> My grandmother went into a coma last week. She came to this country as a young bride and in all the years here, she never became a fluent English speaker. When my parents were in the school environment they were made to feel inferior to their English-speaking peers (They both dropped out early on in high school). These feelings of inferiority are carried with them today. When I entered school, I was encouraged by both the people at school and parents at home to act "more American" and stop using Portuguese (Pride in my culture was likewise discouraged.).

> I just came home from the hospital. As I stroked my grandmother's arm and forehead, I spoke to her (I really believe she could hear me.), but I spoke to her in a language she doesn't really understand. She might know who was speaking, but she won't ever know what I really wanted to say to her. I don't ever want this situation to happen to my students. Yes, I do want them to become fluent in English and be able to compete with other students academically, but it is imperative to me that they retain pride in their culture and their bilingual abilities.

Conclusion

Nancy's story has been repeated too often in this country. If second language learners are to succeed in schools, the mistakes of the past must not be repeated. It is important to look at the assumptions we have made about second language learners and turn to alternatives based on current research. Whole language principles, including the principle that learning should take place in the first language, offer a chance for second language learners to succeed academically and to become valuable bilingual members of our complex, multicultural society.

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TEACHING ENGLISH TO ARABIC-SPEAKING STUDENTS: CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC CONSIDERATIONS

Sheryl L. Santos
Mahmoud F. Suleiman

Abstract

Given the rapidly increasing number of Arabic-speaking students in U.S. public schools, English as a second language (ESL) and bilingual teachers need to be cognizant of sociolinguistic, historical and cultural considerations affecting the educational needs of these students and their families. This paper provides relevant information which will assist teachers to develop sensitivity and understanding of this unique language-minority population. The authors hope that this material will help teachers better determine how to structure the curriculum, pinpoint transfer pitfalls between English and Arabic, enhance students' social integration and accelerate their acquisition of English.

One of the regions of the world most affected by political unrest and turmoil is the Middle East. The increasing population of Arabic-speaking students in the American schools has become a reality that merits attention. The purpose of this paper is to share cultural and linguistic information with bilingual and ESL teachers to enable them to promote intercultural understanding and facilitate the acquisition of English as a second language.

Establishing Rapport

Arabs live within the borders of over twenty nations throughout the Middle East, North Africa, and the Arabian Peninsula. Nevertheless, "to avoid offending many Arabs, [teachers] would be prudent to use the singular 'Arab nation' instead of the plural 'Arab nations' in [their] conversations with the Arabs" (Almaney & Alwan, 1982, p. 33) in acknowledgement of their shared language, religion and culture. Although 90 percent of the more than 160 million Arabic-speakers in the region are Muslim, there are also many Arab Jews and Christians (Al-Qazzaz et al, 1978; Denny, 1987). Minorities are identified by either religion or language. Some examples of non-Arabs are Kurds, Druze, Copts, Armenians, Assyrians, and Berbers (Butt, 1987).

Although recent immigrants tend to settle in established communities in states such as California, Michigan, New York, New Jersey, and Texas, they are also finding their way to other areas of the country (Abraham & Abraham, 1983). Teachers wishing to establish positive intercultural relations with recently arrived students and their families must become sensitized to the diversity of the people and their histories. Therefore, ESL and bilingual teachers should not make any assumptions about the preconceived ideas of their students and families. Just as Americans may have developed false images of Arabs because of media-hype and lack of first-hand knowledge, Arabs have also fallen victims of stereotyping. Both Arabs and Americans view each other through

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their own cultural filters. To promote positive human relations, teachers should make every effort to obtain accurate information. When in doubt, the best advice is to be an open-minded listener: empathetic and sympathetic (Almaney & Alwan, 1982).

Common Stereotypes

Based upon hundreds of personal experiences and interactions with Arab immigrants from across the United States over the past five years, the following stereotypes about American society surfaced as the most common:

1. All Americans are rich. They may not know about the homeless in America or about the ghettos.
2. Americans are mostly white, Christian, and speak English. They may be ignorant of minority groups and their historical struggle.
3. Americans have lax moral standards. They believe that in America, anything goes. Interpreted as proof are dating at a young age, teenage pregnancy, liberal dress codes, drinking, and going to bars and clubs.

On the other hand, common notions about Arabs reinforce a picture of a male dominated society, wealthy sheiks in long robes, fanatic fundamentalists, and more recently, "terrorists" (Almaney & Alwan, 1982). By emphasizing positive cultural aspects and contributions to world civilizations, teachers can diffuse the effects of such unfavorable images thrust upon an uninformed public.

Some facts that could yield more objectivity toward Arabs include the following: (a) Arab civilization introduced ancient Greek learning to the West through the preservation and translation of original Greek, Persian, Sanskrit, and Syriac manuscripts (Al-Qazzaz, et al, 1978); and (b) Arabs can be credited with innovations in medicine, architecture, mathematics, astronomy, geography and in other disciplines (Fix, 1981).

The Arabic Language

There is great pride and prestige associated with the Arabic language. "Arabic is the language of one of the world's great civilizations, and one to which the West has been profoundly indebted for over a millennium in fields as diverse as mathematics, chemistry, geography, and philosophy." (Starr, 1990, p. B2). Not only is it the language of the Holy Koran, but it is a language which enjoys wide usage in the creation of great literature and poetry, as well as having influenced Spanish greatly through 700 years of presence in Spain (Monroe, 1970, 1976). One example of the love and respect for the written word was the care and attention given to libraries during the Arab period in Spain. In one of Cordobas 70 libraries, for example, 400,000 books were collected (Al-Qazzaz et al, 1978).

Geographic proximity allows for the common bond of language to remain strong despite variations in the spoken language among people of varying regions and nationalities. Children commonly grow up with a sense of bilingualism in that they are aware of these regional dialectical differences and how the standard written forms differ from their spoken dialects (Al-Batal, 1988). This experience with Arabic can be helpful as students are introduced to English.

How Arabic and English Differ

Arabic is different from English is many ways. Problems ranging from phonological to morphological and structural difficulties that face Arabic speaking students while learning English have been well-documented (Zughoul, 1979; Mitleb, 1982, 1985; Ibrahim, 1977, 1978; Suleiman, 1987). There are unique aspects of the Arabic language which pose special transfer problems with English which have pedagogical implications for ESL teaching and curriculum design (Thomson-Panos & Thomas-Ruzic, 1983).

When teaching English to Arabic-speakers some linguistic considerations should be kept in mind:

First, the writing system goes from right to left. The way the letters are written depends upon their position in Arabic words (see Appendix). The orthographies of both languages are different and tend to pose difficulty in pronunciation and spelling (Ibrahim, 1977, 1978). Some sounds in English do not exist in Arabic: an example is the substitution of the "b" for a "p" ("beople) ... "compination". Arabic does not have two distinctive bilabial plosives, only the voiced /b/ and hypercorrected spelling that represents both "b" and "p" as "p". There are no written vowels. Diacritics are used instead to indicate vowels.

Second, recognizing syntactic differences between English and Arabic can guide ESL teachers and help them deal with transfer problems effectively (Yorkey, 1977). ESL teachers should train their students to make linguistic adjustments when learning English. For example, they should make it clear that word order (*e.g. Dead Sea vs. *Sea Dead*), language typology (*e.g. Ali goes to school vs. *goes Ali to school*), structural patterns (*e.g. that's the teacher whom I met* vs. **That the teacher whom I met* ***him***) ... are different in both languages.

Most importantly, the sociolinguistic aspects of Arabic differ from those of English. Some of these features usually transfer to English in an inappropriate manner. For example, the depth of questioning about family affairs, health, and other private matters are culturally incompatible. Jokes are also culture-bound; what is humorous to an Arab might be outrageous to an American and vice versa.

Finally, written discourse of Arab ESL learners is dependent on the Arabic logic and cultural thought patterns. The rhetoric of a tightly organized, logical presentation of ideas is as foreign to Arab students as English itself (Yorkey, 1977). On the other hand, English rhetoric is often construed as cold and highly impersonal rather than embellished as is the elite style of literary Arabic.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to provide some important cultural and linguistic information about Arabic-speakers which hopefully, will assist teachers to have a point of departure from which to understand their students and their families. By providing relevant cultural information, teachers can better determine how to structure the curriculum to include these students in every aspect of the school's life. Similarly, with linguistic knowledge teachers can pinpoint and deal with transfer pitfalls between English and Arabic to accelerate the acquisition of English and to encourage the maintenance of Arabic.

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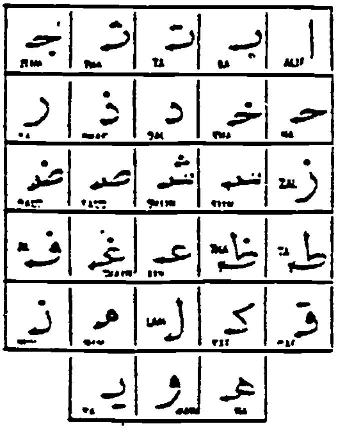
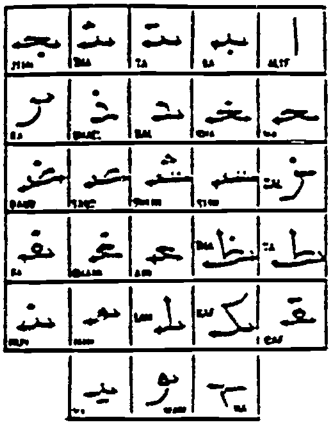
Appendix

The Arabic Alphabet According to Position in Words

BEGINNING



MIDDLE



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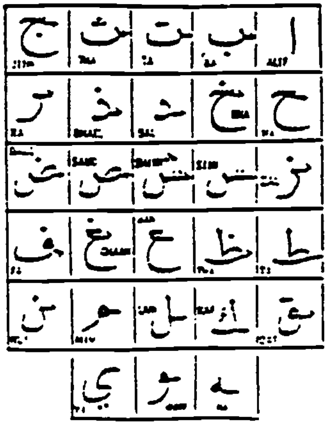

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COOPERATIVE LEARNING, MULTICULTURAL FUNCTIONING, AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

Cecilia Salazar Parrenas
Florante Yap Parrenas

Abstract

This paper identifies the demographic challenges classroom teachers face as they find the reshaping of the profile of the American student population. Limited English proficient (LEP) students remarkably stand out because of their cultural diversity and their rapidly increasing numbers. Many of these students face extraordinary barriers to achieving the high levels of literacy that would allow them to become fully enfranchised members of our society.

Research indicates, according to Webb (1982) in his study on student interaction and learning in small groups, that cooperative learning groups attain achievement only if the two essential conditions of setting group goals and individual accountability are provided. A review of the literature on cooperative learning and student achievement (Slavin, 1988) shows that the success of cooperative learning in increasing student achievement depends substantially on the provision of group goals and individual accountability. Cooperative learning methods that incorporated both group goals and individual accountability are considerably more effective. When schools use cooperative learning with the primary purpose of enhancing student achievement, past research findings should be taken into consideration.

Cooperative Learning and Diversity in the Classroom

Cooperative learning has been considered as the answer to many educational problems. It has been proposed as an alternative to ability grouping, special programs for the gifted, Chapter I pull-outs, special education, and language programs for non English speaking and limited English proficient students. It has been perceived as a tool to introduce critical thinking skills and to ensure that students learn basic skills. It has been used to mainstream academically handicapped students, and to immerse language deficient students to give them the necessary skills to survive in an increasingly interdependent society. Recently, cooperative learning has been used as a major component of programs for limited-English language students who come from a broad spectrum of social and racial backgrounds and are expected to work up to the expectations of their new schools and unfamiliar society.

The entry of language limited students in our schools has reshaped the profile of the American student population. As a result, classroom teachers face many challenges brought about by demographic changes that require changes in descriptors for our students. These students remarkably stand out because of their cultural diversity and rapidly increasing numbers. They come to school with different values and backgrounds.

Tests results document a consistent lag in the achievement scores of Hispanic students (Coll, 1989). English-fluent Hispanic students score lower than all language-minority groups at the elementary level on the California Assessment Program test. In high school, 45% of Hispanic youth who enter grade nine do not graduate. Across the United States there is a "majority-minority progressive school achievement gap". Each year non-white students fall further behind white students while there is little or no difference in the achievement scores of these students at or near entry to school. By the end of elementary school, non-white students fall further behind white students in math and score a full grade behind in reading. By the end of the junior high school, the gap has doubled so that white students score a full grade higher in math and two full grades higher in reading. Beyond then, it is impossible to get accurate comparison figures because of differential drop-out rates--non-white students begin dropping out of the educational pipeline much earlier than do white students (Cummins, 1989).

Many reasons for the poor record of schools in educating and holding non-white students have been established. One plausible explanation offered is the structural bias hypothesis (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1988). The schools have been structured to rely heavily on competitive tasks and reward structures which provide a bias in favor of the achievement and values of the white students. Majority students are generally more competitive in their social orientation than non-white students who tend to achieve better and feel better about themselves and school in less competitive classrooms. Cooperative learning groups can be used so that students may be grouped accordingly on the basis of their achievement on a single subject, and not mainly by general achievement or ability level thereby reducing the effect of competition.

Essential Conditions for Successful Cooperative Learning Groups

Research indicates, according to Webb (1982) in his study on student interaction and learning in small groups, that cooperative learning groups attain achievement only if two essential conditions are provided. First, the group must be aware that they have a group goal; that the group ears the certificate or bonus points through group effort. Second, achievement can be assured if the group is aware of individual accountability. Each individual must contribute to the team effort. Without group goals, students are not likely to engage in the elaborate explanations that have been found to be essential to the achievement effects of cooperative learning. Further, group goals may help students overcome their reluctance to ask for help or provide help to one another; that is, without an overriding group goal, they may be embarrassed to ask for or offer help. In addition, without individual accountability, one or two group members may do all the work and those group members perceived to be low achievers may be ignored if they contribute ideas or ask for help.

A review of the literature on cooperative learning and student achievement Slavin (1988) suggests that the success of cooperative learning in increasing student achievement depends substantially on the provision of group goals and individual accountability. Methods that incorporate group goals and individual accountability include Student Team Achievement Divisions (Slavin, 1987(b), Teams-Games-Tournament (DeVries and Slavin, 1978), and Team Assisted Individualization-Mathematics (Slavin, 1985).

Cooperative learning methods that incorporate both group goals and individual accountability are considerably more effective than other methods (Slavin 1988). The misconception that all cooperative learning situations are equally effective can perhaps be attributed to a meta-analysis by Johnson and Johnson (1975) that claimed that 122 studies supported the effectiveness of cooperative learning in all its forms. It is possible that high test scores in this meta-analysis repesented individuals scoring better when they were giving each other answers than when they worked alone. However, they may or may not have learned more from the experience than students in traditional classrooms.

Cooperative learning in any form seems positive but may not assure a miraculous improvement in student achievement. It has been cited to have many positive effects. They include the areas of academics, economics, self-esteem, intergroup relations, and the ability to work with others.

1. The Achievement Gap

Johnson and Johnson (1981) conducted a meta analysis on 122 achievement-related studies. Overall, their conclusion was that cooperative learning promotes higher achievement than competitive and individualistic learning structures across all age levels, subject areas, and almost all tasks. Slavin (1983) analyzed 46 controlled research studies which were conducted for an extended time in regular elementary and secondary classrooms. Of the studies, 63% showed superior outcomes for cooperative learning, 33% showed no differences, and only 4% showed higher achievement for the traditional comparison groups. Almost all (89%) of the studies which used group rewards for individual achievement (individual accountability) showed academic gains. When individual accountability was absent, achievement was about the same as in comparison classrooms. The lowest achieving students and minority students in general benefited most, but the benefit obtained for the lower achievers was not at the expense of the higher achievers. The high achieving students generally performed as well or better in cooperative classrooms than they did in traditional classrooms.

2. Ethnic Relations

The changing demographic profile means increased racial diversity. The schools, however, have not adopted effective practices to create positive race relations. The courts have mandated desegregation, but within the classrooms students segregate themselves along race lines. As with the school achievement issue, the problem of poor race relations among students is progressive: each school year students choose fewer friends from outside their own ethnic or cultural group. At the beginning of elementary school, children work easily in mixed racial groups but by the end of elementary school, they begin to segregate themselves along race lines. Racial divisions and tensions increase throughout middle school, culminating with high school where students are isolated by racial groups. Whether or not there is the appearance of racial gangs, there is racial tension. Students are not generally prepared by the schools to work well in a racially integrated democratic society. Unless there is a change in educational practices, the increased racial diversity will result in two crises within schools: (1) failure to hold and educate most students; and (2) increased racial tension and segregation along race lines among students. As non-white students become the new majority, schools will become elitist, effective for only the "white" minority. If educators continue along this present path schools are likely to experience achievement crises. The potential for a race-relations crisis is frightening. Increased racial diversity in the absence of programs which promote positive cross-race relations could be associated with race-relation problems so severe that they could threaten the fabric of our democracy. Cooperative learning can promote ethnic relations and help reduce conflict among racial groups.

3. Socialization: Historical Departure

Students today generally do not come to school with the same prosocial values which once were common. Students do not seem as respectful, careful, helpful, or cooperative as they were some twenty years ago. The loss of prosocial values and behaviors among students may be the result of a number of converging economic and social factors (Arreaga-Mayer, 1986). Families today are mobile, cutting children away from stabilizing influences of enduring neighborhood and community support systems. The two-income family has become an economic necessity and as mothers leave home, children spend less time in the company of the person generally most concerned about their positive development. Because families are small and nonextended, children grow up having less contact with older siblings and grandparents--older caring people who once had a positive impact on children's social development.

Children now spend more time viewing television than they do in school or in any other single daily activity. Three problems with television as a substitute socializer are frequently cited:

a. The content of television programs often provides a very poor model for social development. More violent acts per minute are portrayed on children's TV programs than at any other time.

b. When the television is on, the probability is decreased that family members will interact in ways likely to increase positive social development. Television viewing is a very individualistic endeavor. As family members orient themselves toward the television rather than each other, opportunities are lost for children to learn valuable social interaction and communication skills.

c. A tremendous fortune goes into television advertising, all designed to communicate a fundamental message: if you are unhappy, you can solve that problem by purchasing a product. The youth is taught by television that the way to be more attractive is to buy a better deodorant. There is no advertisement for increasing one's communication or conflict resolution skills.

These changing family structures and socialization practices have resulted in students who lack social sills and attachments. The students of today generally do not know how to get along well with each other. They seem to care less for each other and for themselves.

The need for a positive socialization program in schools is indicated also by a variety of statistics. Suicide rates among our students have climbed drastically in the last twenty years. Among an average group of 640 high school students this year, one will commit suicide; ten will make a serious attempt to do so; and 100 will contemplate on doing so. Crimes against persons and property in school are at an unprecedented rate. Schools must devote substantial resources to repair vandalism. Some have been forced to hire security forces. Many students leave today's schools without the social skills necessary to hold a job. A large study examining the reasons for job loss among first-time employees revealed that the most common cause of losing a job--far more common than job-related skills--was the lack of social skills. Today, students finish their education unprepared for the social demands of our modern economy.

Schools must pick up the job of socializing students in the values of caring, sharing, and helping. If exclusively traditional classroom structures are used, children become more competitive; if cooperative classroom structures are used, children become more cooperative.

Traditional competitive classroom structures contribute to a socialization void. Students no longer come to school with an established caring and cooperative social orientation. Thus, students are ill-prepared for a world which increasingly demands highly developed social skills to deal with increasing economic and social interdependence.

Cooperative learning will help preserve democracy. Exclusive use of autocratic, teacher dominated classroom structures leaves students unprepared for participation in a democratic society. Democracy is not nurtured by a system which fosters racial cleavage, educates only an elite group, models autocratic decision making, and expects passive obedience among pupils. Cooperative interdependent educational experiences in our classrooms are necessary if we hope to make possible the democratic ideal of informed and equal participation.

4. Economic Trends

At the turn of the century, more than one-third of the total labor force in this country was engaged in farming. Now less than 3% of the work force are farmers. During the last thirty years, there has been another shift which the sociologist Daniel Bell calls "post-industrial age." A nation of farmers turned industrialists and laborers. But almost without noticing in the last thirty years, Americans have again transformed their economic base. The U.S. is now a nation of professionals. Now, more than two-thirds of the work force deals primarily with information and/or other people. It has become a nation of secretaries, clerks, teachers, accountants, and managers. This trend is continuing. Of the two million new jobs created in the 70s, 5% were in manufacturing and almost 90% were in information, knowledge, or service. Legal services, not apparel, are now New York City's leading export. The nation's work force grew 18% in the 70s but the number of administrators and managers grew by about 60%.

The radical transformation of this economic and information base has very serious implications for education. If educators are going to succeed, they must look beyond scores on narrowly defined achievement tests. Teachers are now called upon to prepare students for a different world, including different kinds of skills, if they are to be successful.

Because of the rapid change rate in the information base, the content taught to children is outdated by the time they get to high school. Educators must make a radical shift in their approach to teaching. They must balance the emphasis on content with an emphasis on process. Students in the future will need to know how to find out and how to produce knowledge. They will less often than not be called upon to draw from a stable storehouse of knowledge.

Educators must teach students not just what science knows but how knowledge is generated.

The very rapid change rate in this economic base has resulted in the need to prepare students to be flexible -- to be prepared to work under a wide range of economic and social task and reward structures in demand. They must learn not only how to be competitive, cooperative, and or individualistic as task and reward structures demand. They must learn the skills associated with transforming existing task and reward structures, not just responding to predetermined structures. Increasingly, economic success at both the individual and company levels, will come by transforming competitive task and reward structures to cooperative structures.

Schools must prepare students for a social and economic world which is changing so fast that is relatively unpredictable. However, in this rapidly changing, high-technology , management/information-oriented economic world of the future, there will be premium placed on individuals with a variety of social skills to succeed, students of today must learn to communicate and work well with others within the full range of social situations, especially within situations involving fluid social structures, human diversity, and interdependence.

The learning task in most cooperative learning methods includes much comprehensible input, extensive opportunity for students to generate output, great frequency and variety of practice, extensive time on task, great task structure and clarity, and the subdivision of the learning unit into moldable parts. All of these features may contribute to the achievement gains observed. Cooperative groups are different from typical classroom groups in several significant ways. There are five important principles which underlie successful cooperative learning experiences. They are: The Principle of Distributed Leadership; The Principle of Heterogeneous Grouping; The Principle of Positive Interdependence; The Principle of Social Skill Acquisition; and The Principle of Group Autonomy (Kagan, 1980; Johnson, 1981; Johnson & Holubec, 1988).

1. The Principle of Distributed Leadership

Cooperative learning is based upon the belief that all students are capable of understanding and performing leadership tasks. Experience and research show that when all group members are expected to be involved and are given leadership responsibilities, it increases the likelihood that each member will be an active participant who is able to initiate leadership when appropriate.

2. The Principle of Heterogeneous Grouping

Cooperative learning is based upon the belief that the most effective student groups are those which are heterogeneous. Groups which include students who have different social backgrounds, skill levels, physical capabilities and gender mirror the real world of encountering, accepting, appreciating, and celebrating differences.

3. The Principle of Positive Interdependence

Cooperative learning is based upon a belief that students need to learn to recognize and value their interdependence. Students must perceive that they need each other in order to complete the group's task (sink or swim together). Teachers may structure positive interdependence by establishing mutual goals (learn and make sure all other group members learn), joint rewards (if all group members achieve above the criteria, each will receive bonus points), shared resources (one paper for each group or each member receives part of the required information), and assigned roles (summarizer, encourager of participation, elaborator).

4. The Principle of Social Skills Acquisition

Cooperative learning is based upon a belief that the ability to work effectively in a group is determined by the acquisition of specific social skills. These social skills can be taught and can be learned. Groups need specific time to discuss how well they are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships among members. Groups cannot function effectively if students do not have or use the needed social skills. These skills are imparted as purposefully and precisely as academic skills would be taught. Collaborative skills include leadership, decision making, trust building, communication, and conflict-management.

5. The Principle of Group Autonomy

Cooperative learning is based upon the belief that student groups are more likely to attempt resolution of their problems if they are not "rescued" from these problems by their teacher. When students resolve their problems with a minimum of teacher input, they become more autonomous and self-sufficient. Students promote each other's learning by helping, sharing, and encouraging efforts to learn. Students explain, discuss, and teach what they know to classmates. Teachers structure the groups so that students sit knee-to-knee and talk through each aspect of the assignment.

In summary, these insights from research show effects of cooperative learning in classrooms with cultural diversity and wide range of academic abilities. Undoubtedly, more research directed at identifying the types of cooperative tasks and group structures best suited for different instructional settings and school subjects is needed, as is additional specifications of other influences such as gender and student achievement level that may affect cooperative activities (Webb & Kenderski, 1985). Nevertheless, with respect to multicultural, limited English proficiency, and second language education, different research findings indicate that cooperative learning provides learners with confidence, self-esteem, and social skills. Teachers will find the cooperative classroom structure to be more compatible with the social values of language limited students and other cooperative students. Children who value helping and sharing will find achievement rewarding in a cooperative classroom. Teachers of language-limited students will find that the particularly strong gains of non-white students in cooperative classrooms may be due to the compatibility of the cooperative classroom structure with the individual social values of non-white students. The choice of exclusively competitive and individualistic classroom structures may bias the academic and social outcomes.

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RECONSTRUCTION OF ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS FOR SOUTHEAST ASIAN REFUGEE TEACHERS: A COMPREHENSIVE IHE APPROACH TO ACCESS AND EXCELLENCE

Juan C. Rodríguez

Abstract

Many Southeast Asian refugees who were qualified professional educators in their native country are working in menial jobs because they lack official proof of academic credentials needed to become certified teachers, or to gain admission into institutions of higher education (IHE) degree programs. On the other hand, the unprecedented number of Southeast Asian refugee students moving into the city school systems intensifies the shortage of qualified bilingual teachers, as is the case of Lowell, Massachusetts.

This paper reports the comprehensive effort of an IHE to remedy the frustrating experience of Southeast Asian refugee teachers through a unique program of reconstructing their academic credentials. It also describes the University of Massachusetts-Lowell's Assessment Center, Bachelor of Liberal Arts program, the English Language Proficiency, and the Pedagogical Development projects, all designed to assist the Southeast Asian teachers to gain professional competencies.

This innovative educational response was possible because of the collaborative efforts of local school systems, the University's College of Education, and state and federal agencies.

Chea Prum teaches Southeast Asian students in Room 201 at the Main Street Elementary School. Because of the students' limited English proficiency, second graders are learning social studies, math and other subjects in their native Khmer language.

Mr. Prum, a former teacher in Cambodia, found a teaching job in the Lowell School System after searching for nine years. He is also currently a participant in the teacher training program at the College of Education. He is luckier than most Southeast Asians who cannot become certified because they left their papers behind when they fled their countries. However, the influx of limited English proficiency (LEP) students who speak Khmer, Lao or Vietnamese, have prompted a great demand now in many urban areas for teachers like Mr. Prum.

In Massachusetts, during the 1989 fiscal year, fourteen percent of the students enrolled Southeast Asians, for a total of 4,728 youngsters. They were served by 28 bilingual certified teachers and 111 teachers under waiver from the Massachusetts Department of Eduction. If the increment of Southeast Asians is compared with the rest of the LEP students between fiscal year 1987 and 1989 it can be noticed that, while the total enrollment increased by 28.56%, the Southeast Asian student population grew by 36.41%.

The arrival of Southeast Asians in Massachusetts began in 1979 and it concentrated in Lowell, a New England mill town located 30 miles from Boston, and which is rooted in the industrial revolution of the 19th century. The

Southeast Asian population in Lowell is made up of a very large group of Cambodian/Khmer refugees (whose number increased five fold since 1984) as well as Laotians and Vietnamese.

In the city of Lowell, which is second only to Long Beach, California in Cambodian population in the U.S., the situation becomes more compelling if the unprecedented number of Southeast Asian students moving into the school district is considered. The 1984 enrollment of Southeast Asian LEP students in the city of Lowell was 494, representing 4.1% of the total population. By the end of the 1987-1988 school year, the number of these students augmented to 2,674 or 20.7%.

A significant number of these children did not have previous school experience because of the turmoil in their native country. Others interrupted their schooling due to their relocation in refugee camps and their ultimate resettlement in this country. Because of their refugee status, most Southeast Asians lack educational credentials, including school records, which makes it difficult, if not impossible, to assess their academic background. All of these factors in addition to their experience of war, their exodus from their native land, their adaptation to a new way of life and a foreign language in America, and the destruction of their families are situations which most people would find very hard to overcome.

The lack of official credentials to document their academic background, which is required for teacher certification in Massachusetts, is a towering obstacle for many Southeast Asian refugees who were qualified professionals in their native country. Many of them are here working in menial jobs, while others work as teachers' aides or tutors.

This situation presented a new challenge to the University of Massachusetts-Lowell and compelled its College of Education to assume a social and educational role of service to the Southeast Asian community. If the preparation of school personnel under regular circumstances is important, this unique situation required an urgent response. It was necessary to take an innovative approach that resulted, after much efforts and frustration, in the reconstruction of the academic background of many uncertified Southeast Asian refugee teachers.

This paper will report on the attempt to establish a unique program to address the needs of uncertified Southeast Asian refugee teachers, a program that helped Mr. Prum and others like him get back into the classroom.

The Educational Response

In order to improve the instructional and professional competence of Southeast Asian bilingual teachers and paraprofessionals to effectively teach LEP students in the American educational system, the College of Education's Bilingual Program implemented several initiatives. The collaborative action of schools, the College, state and federal agencies is one of the most important features of the Southeast Asian Program. Some of the components of the program follow:

Reconstruction of Academic Credentials:

Because of their refugee status, most of the target teachers were unable to obtain official transcripts of their educational background from their native country. This lack of documentation made it nearly impossible for them to obtain their teacher certification. Individuals willing to further their education at colleges and universities also confront the problem of admission or proper placement based on their professional background.

To explore the possibility of solving this situation, a nationwide survey was conducted by the Bilingual Program at the University of Massachusetts-Lowell to identify organizations that deal with the reconstruction of academic credentials, but none were found who address this problem. Several organizations do evaluations and translations, but not even one does reconstruction of academic credentials.

Therefore, the University of Lowell sought the cooperation of several state institutions dealing with education and Southeast Asian refugee issues. After two years of much negotiation, the Massachusetts Department of Education with the cooperation of the College of Education established a procedure to reconstruct previous academic background of bilingual Southeast Asian refugee teachers who were seeking teacher certification and academic degree. For this purpose the Academic Credential Validation Committee was created. This Committee is made up of groups of native speakers of the language and recognized experts of the Cambodian, Laotian or Vietnamese higher educational system.

The identification of these well respected individuals, who have extensive academic and professional experience was possible after an exhaustive national search. Many members of the Committee held academic rank and were educational administrative authorities in their native countries. To complete an evaluation of a candidate's educational level, the Committee conducted a review of whatever documentation the candidate could provide, and followed with an extensive interview to ascertain the candidate's academic background in his or her native country and elsewhere.

The innovative process of reconstructing academic credentials, a service offered free of charge, is making the documentation of the educational background of many Southeast Asian teachers possible. This documentation may then be utilized for teacher certification and to continue studies in institutions of higher education to obtain degrees. Up to the present time seventeen undocumented educators have received a certificate equivalent to a Bachelor's degree. Other applicants, approximately eighty, have received the equivalent of ninety to thirty academic credit hours.

The reconstruction of academic credentials is helping to ease the shortage of qualified bilingual teachers to work with Cambodian and other Southeast Asian children in Massachusetts, and is serving as a model to other states which are experiencing a similar problem. To provide feedback, guidance and to oversee the operation of the academic reconstruction process, an advisory committee has been established. Members are deans of education from independent and public IHEs concerned with refugee educational issues, and state officers of the Massachusetts Department of Education and the Office of Refugee and Immigrants.

Assessment Center:

To fill the gap that existed in terms of advice, orientation and referral of teachers and individuals interested in continuing their professional and academic development, or those in need of teacher certification, the Assessment Center was established in 1987. The Center reviews credentials, academic and/or professional experience, and provides information, advice, guidance and referral to Southeast Asians regarding requirements and procedures for becoming a teacher and to obtain certification. In addition the Center, whose service is free of charge, assists prospective teachers on issues related to professional development and employment.

Bachelor of Liberal Arts:

The College of Education, working with the College of Liberal Arts and the Division of Continuing Education at the University of Lowell, has initiated a program to assist undergraduate level Southeast Asian bilingual teachers to complete the required courses needed for a Bachelor of Liberal Arts degree. This undergraduate program, which differs from the Bachelor of Arts day program, is designed for individuals who went through the academic reconstruction process or teachers who are currently working under waiver in school systems. Classes are held in the evenings and the staff is familiar with the problems that this kind of population is confronting. The program of study is offered by the College of Liberal Arts.

Pedagogical Development:

In order to assist in the development of the professional competencies of Southeast Asian teachers and paraprofessionals presently working in the school systems in the Merrimack Valley, an in-service program has been implemented. This program has as a framework in the ethnographic tradition. It focuses it's training activities on the priorities identified by the local schools in areas such as educational methods and techniques, classroom management, bilingual education and second language acquisition, language arts, curriculum, etc. (Impink-Hernández, 1989; Minaya-Rowe, 1990; Faltis, 1991). These tuition-free courses were designed to improve the effectiveness and quality of instruction and are offered for academic credit during the fall and spring semesters, and early in the summer. Presently, approximately 35 Southeast Asian teachers and 25 paraprofessionals are participating in this in-service professional development program.

English Language Proficiency:

Part of the program also prepares Southeast Asian teachers to take the Language Proficiency Examination in English required for teacher certification by the Massachusetts Department of Education. The preparation courses offered focus on the two components of the language proficiency exam: the linguistic and cultural components. The improvement of English language skills, in order to effectively conduct classroom instruction and school activities, was a priority identified by the teachers participating in the professional development program.

A Look Beyond the Program

Programs for the training of educational personnel in Bilingual Education have been in place for many years; a large number of them focus on the Hispanic population. Recently with the influx of Southeast Asians, it became urgent to establish professional education programs for this population to seriously meet their specific needs. Usually, training programs address a singular aspect, such as in-service, certification, degree, etc.; only rarely do they consider a comprehensive professional development program, and almost none are tailored for Southeast Asians whose refugee status makes their needs quite different from other emerging ethnic groups.

The unique educational alternative promoted and offered by the University of Massachusetts-Lowell, gives access to Southeast Asian teachers and provides them opportunity to regain their previous teacher status. It allows individuals like Mr. Prum to further their education and to become duly certified educators in their adopted land. Ultimately and most importantly, it effectively meets the educational needs of the Southeast Asian children, whom these educators are being trained to serve. In addition, the Bachelor of Liberal Arts and the English language proficiency examination preparation courses assist Southeast Asian teachers in their empowerment process (Cummins, 1989) and professional growth. " My students are learning better and I am more confident about my teaching. Without the Bilingual Program I would still be struggling out there," said Mr. Prum.

A side benefit of implementing the educational program for the Southeast Asians was to heighten the presence of the University's College of Education community, and to provide a gratifying opportunity to reactivate old collaborative networks or establish new ones among local, state and federal agencies.

To prepare exemplary and effective bilingual teachers to work with culturally diverse students is a complex endeavor, but it is hoped that in the future other IHEs can continue and improve the prototype developed in Massachusetts. The challenge to design new educational approaches to meet the needs of other communities similar to the Southeast Asian throughout the nation still remains.

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